सरस्ती श्रुतिमहती महीयताम्।

CONCEPTS OF RĪTI AND GUŅA IN SANSKRIT POETICS

CONCEPTS OF RITI AND GUNA IN SANSKRIT POETICS IN THEIR HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

BY

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To The Sacred Memory Of

My Dear Father
Pandit Abhilash Chandra Sarvabhauma

स्वसुख-निरिभलाषः सुप्रवीधप्रकाशः
प्रियतिविधिविद्यासर्वभूमीश्वरस्वम् ।
ऋजुरित जितकाशो तात जाताहताशीरिविद्यत-क्षतिश्रेषः कोत्तिश्रेषं गतोऽसि ॥

वत्साख्याहि कदा सुभाषितश्रताकोर्षेऽय काव्याध्वनि सञ्चारो भविता तवेति निस्ता सिंडिंगता श्रंसना । साहित्यार्षेव-सैकते विचरता मुग्धेन ते कल्पितो न्यस्त: शस्ततमे लदिंडुयुगले श्रदाञ्चलिगृद्यताम् ॥ gunāh priyatve'dhikṛtā na samstavah I

upakārakatvād alamkārah saptamam angam t

guņā guņajnesu guņībhavanti I

kaścid vācam racayitum alam śrotum evāparas tām kalyāmī te matir ubhayathā vismayām nas tanoti i na hyekasminn atiśayavatām sannipāto gumanām ekah sūtekanakam upalas tat-parīkṣā-kṣamo'nyah il

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PREFACE

following pages present substantially The Doctorate Thesis submitted in 1934. The object of the investigation is to study two of the Concepts of Sanskrit Alamkāra, viz, Guna and Rīti, which are intimately allied to each other, in the different creative writers of the Sastra. This has involved a close and minute study of the texts themselves some of which (e.g. Bharata's texts as well as those of the Agnipurana) are indeed difficult and obscure. No pains have been spared to examine the Concepts critically from the available sources and as the subject has not been studied in such detail by any previous writer, it is believed that the present thesis will serve to extend, to some extent, the bounds of our knowledge of the topics treated. An attempt has been made to trace the historical development of the Concepts as they unfold themselves in the works of all standard writers down to the time of Jagannatha. An historical development of a subject essentially requires a knowledge of the chronology of the period treated. But in view of the fact that in the present case the chronology has already been ably discussed by previous scholars and that there is a general agreement among them all, except in one or two points, I have not thought it necessary to take up the whole question anew. In course of my study, I have incidentally touched upon the chronological relation of Kuntaka and Abhinavagupta and have tried to show from internal evidences that the Vakroktijīvita appeared earlier than the Abhinavabhāratī and regarding the date of composition of the Alamkāra section of the Agnipurāna I have sided with those who would place this section of the work later than Bhoja.

In a detailed work like this, it is not possible to explain all allied matters afresh. I have, therefore, restricted my study to the critical exposition and historical development of the Concepts of Riti and Guna and have assumed, without explanation, certain commonly known facts of the Śāstra. Generally it has not been my aim to decide between conflicting opinions except when they have a direct bearing on my subject. It is hoped that the present work will be judged on its own merits and too much importance will not be assigned to the question whether or not it follows a particular view-point regarding a particular connected topic. By the time when I completed my investigation the Gaekwad Oriental Series published its second volume of the Nātvaśāstra. But since the texts of the Abhinavabhāratī in the said book do not differ materially from those in the manuscript which I have used, I have not thought it necessary to quote texts therefrom.

I must take this opportunity to express my gratefulness to the authorities of the University of Dacca specially to Mr. A. F. Rahman, the present Vice-Chancellor for kindly publishing my thesis as a University Bulletin. To Mr. Sivaprasad Bhattacharyya, M.A., B.T., Kāvyatīrtha, Sāhityaśāstrī, Professor, Presidency College, Calcutta, I must express my deep sense of reverence and gratitude. Himself a genuine worker in Alamkara Sāstra—he first advised me to take up the comparatively unexplored field of Indian Poetics as my subject for study. He not only permitted me to use the transcript copies of two of the earlier commentaries of the Kāyvaprakāśa (i.e. those of Śrīdhara and Candīdāsa) also helped me ungrudgingly with valuable but suggestions whenever I approached him in connection with the present work. In spite of serious personal inconveniences he kindly gave me an opportunity of

revising with him a greater portion of the work before it was sent to the press.

Although I had my first initiation into the Alamkara Śāstra before I joined the Dacca University, my real interest in the Sastra was created when I read it as my special subject for the M. A. Examination of that University. There I had the rare privilege of studying the Sastra with Dr. S. K. De who is universally recognised as a pioneer worker and an authority on Sanskrit Poetics. It was he on whose recommendation I was awarded a research scholarship by the Dacca University for the study of 'Some Fundamental Concepts of Sanskrit Alamkara in Their Historical Development' under his able guidance. His monumental work, 'Studies in Sanskrit Poetics' in two volumes has considerably facilitated the work of succeeding scholars and in spite of some minor blemishes, unavoidable in a pioneer work of this kind, it will long continue to be a standard work of reference. To say that he watched with interest the progress of this thesis would be to say little because he not only read almost through the whole of this work, discussing and correcting its first draft but also placed me under deep obligation by making, from time to time, valuable suggestions for improvement from his expert knowledge of the subject. To him I am also indebted for his readily lending me some of the texts or editions of works on the subject out of his unrivalled collection specially the transcript copy of the manuscript of the Abhinavabhāratī.

During the period when the major part of the present work was done I was a resident student as a research scholar of the Jagannath Hall. In this connection I must express my gratefulness to Prof. R. C. Majumdar, M.A., Ph.D., Provost of the Hall who took a personal interest in the progress of my work, extended to me all facilities as a boarder and an Assistant

House-tutor and helped me to proceed with my work undisturbed.

But, so far as the actual completion of the present work is concerned, I am indebted in the highest degree to Mr. H. D. Bhattacharyva, M.A., B.L., Head of the Department of Philosophy and Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Dacca University, but for whose manifold assistance and words of hope and encouragement at a time when they were most needed the work could not have been expeditiously completed. He laid me under deep obligation by going through some portion of the work in manuscript and suggesting improvements in its style of composition. To my teacher Mr. G. P. Bhattacharyya, M. A., Vedāntaśāstrī and my brother Dr. P. C. Lahiri, M. A., Ph. D., Kāyvatīrtha, Sāhityaśāstrī,—both of them Lecturers in Sanskrit at the University of Dacca, I am considerably indebted for occasional helps in elucidating some difficult texts.

Besides Dr. S. K. De's Sanskrit Poetics and articles in Oriental Journals, I have utilised the works of almost all other previous scholars on the field. In this connection I should note that I have been specially benefited by the works of Mahāmahopādhyāya Dr. Ganganatha Jha, M.A., D.Litt., Mr. P. V. Kane, M.A., LL.M., Dr. J. Nobel, Ph.D. and Dr. A. Sankaran, M.A., Ph.D.

Chittagong College, November, 1936.

PRAKAS CHANDRA LAHIRI.

CHIEF ABBREVIATIONS, ETC.

App. — Appendix.

A.S.B. — Asiatic Society of Bengal.

Bh. — Bhoja.

Ch. — Chapter.

Ch. T. — Chowkhamba Text (Kashi Sanskrit Series edition) of the Nāṭyaśāstra of Bharata; the Roman number denotes the chapter and the Arabic number or group of numbers stands for the verse so marked in the edition.

Com. or Comm. - Commentary.

D. - Dandin.

 odīpikā — Kāvyaprakāśadipikā of Caṇḍīdāsa, Benares, 1933.

D.K. — Dhvani-kārikā. The Roman number denotes the *uddyota* and the Arabic number or group of numbers the Kārikā so marked in the K.M. edition.

ed. or edn. — edition.

I.H.Q. — Indian Historical Quarterly.

ill. v. — illustrative verse.

I. T. — Indian Thought.

J.O.R. — Journal of Oriental Research,
Madras.

Kār. — Kārikā.

K.D. — Kāvyādarśa; the Roman number stands for the chapter and the Arabic number or group of numbers for the verse so marked in the edition hereafter mentioned.

K.M.T. — Kāvyamālā Text of the Nāṭyaśāstra of Bharata; the Roman number denotes the chapter and the Arabic number or group of numbers the verse so marked in the text.

Kāvyaprakāśa; the Roman number (where used) denotes the chapter (ullāsa) and sūtra denotes the section so marked before the text in Vāmanācārya's edition.

°samketa — Kāvyaprakāśa-samketa of Māṇikyacandra in the Ānandāśrama Series edition of the Kāvyaprakāśa.

S.D. — Sāhityadarpaṇa; the Roman number (where used) denotes the chapter (pariccheda) and kar. before the Arabic numbers denotes the section so marked in Jīvānanda's edition.

°viveka — Kāvyaprakāśaviveka (transcript copy of the A.S.B. manuscript).

V.J. — Vakroktijīvita, the Roman number stands for the chapter (unmeṣa) and the Arabic number or group of numbers for the kārikā so marked in the text.

Besides an author has sometimes been cited by name for his work. For instance Vāmana, iii, 1, 1 has been used for Kāvyālamkārasūtravṛtti, third adhikaraṇa, first adhyāya, first sūtra. Uses of this nature will be easily understood.

a, b, c, and d at the end of $s\bar{u}tra$, $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ or verse denote respectively the first, second, third and fourth feet of the $s\bar{u}tra$ etc.

In a work which contains both the text and the commentary, the line mentioned in connection with the commentary has been counted from the place where the commentary actually begins (i.e. the text has been excluded).

For editions of the different works used, see Bibliography at the end of the thesis. When referred to for the first time (in the thesis) the full title of the particular work has generally been given.

For transliteration the system of the Royal Asiatic Society has been followed.

Words which admit of alternative spellings have been retained as found in the particular texts, e.g. ulvaņa, ulbaņa; niviḍa, nibiḍa; vikāśa, vikāsa; vindu, bindu; vija, bīja etc.

In some places words in Sanskrit have been quoted in their *prātipadika* forms to suit the English construction in the body of the thesis.

Dr. S. K. De and Mr. S. P. Bhattacharyya have kindly enriched my work with the following foot-notes of their own:—

S. K. D. p. 67. fn. 20; p. 69. fn. 27-28; p. 70. fn. 32, p. 75. fn. 39; p. 85. fn. 1; p. 87. fn. 3; p. 101. fn. 20; p. 105. fn. 23.

S. P. B. p. 97. fn. 13; p. 221-22, fn. 4ab; p. 233. fn. 21a.

요즘 함께 가장 보다면서 모든 소문을 내고 하는 것 같은 사람

마이크로 이 보이지 않는다. 님이 보고 이상하였던 당시다.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL POSITION OF DOŞA AS RELATED TO GUŅA AND ALAMKĀRA.

It is well-known to students of Sanskrit Poetics that the main object of the writers of Alainkāra-šāstra has been to search for poetic beauty and to formulate theories by way of guiding aspirants to poetic fame and young critics to judge poetry with precision. This led them to analyse the different aspects of poetry in order to find out the various means of its embellishments which they comprised under some broad technical names such as the elements of Rasa, Dhvani, Rīti, Guṇa and Alainkāra. Wide divergence of opinion has prevailed among theorists about the conception and execution of these embellishing factors of poetry and their great importance has quite naturally made them subjects for special study by different scholars.

Whatever controversy might have existed amongst theorists of different ages and schools regarding the character and relative importance of these embellishing

I. Dr. S. K. De has traced the full history of the Concept of Rasa in Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Volumes (Vol. III. pp. 207-39) besides his treatment of the question in his Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II, pp. 135-74. Dr. A. Sankaran also studied the same Concept along with the Concept of Dhvani in his 'Some Aspects of Literary Criticism'. And Dr. J. Nobel has given a brief treatment of the Concept of Riti in one of the chapters of his 'Foundations of Indian Poetry' (pp. 98-125).

elements in their theory of poetry, they have all agreed upon one fundamental point, namely, that they have insisted upon the avoidance (hāna or heyatā) of Dosas or poetic flaws since Dosa, as the very name indicates, has a deterring effect on poetry inasmuch as it mars its beauty. Dandin² emphatically enjoins that even a slight defect ought not to be tolerated in poetry as even a single leprous spot is sufficient to render a handsome body ugly. Govinda's is more explicit when he states that if poetry is defective in any form, the presence of technical excellences and figures of poetry fails to create the necessary poetic charm: on the other hand, if it is free from poetic flaws, it can produce at least some amount of charm even without technical excellences. In this view Govinda appears to have been anticipated by Abhinavagupta who lays a greater emphasis upon the absence of Dosas than on the presence of Gunas and Alamkāras when he remarks in connection with Bharata's Dosas*:—etad-dosa-vihīnam śruti-sukham dīpta-rasam ca yadi bhavati tāvatā gunāntarair alamkāraisca hīnam api kāvyam laksana-yogāvyabhicārītyuktam. These theorists, therefore, (excepting Dandin who is not so explicit) appear to hold that

tad alpam api nopeksyam kāvye duṣṭam kathañcana |
syād vapuḥ sundaram api śvitrenaikena durbhagam |
(Kāvyādarśa, i. 7)

^{3.}dosābhāvādīni lakṣaṇasthāni viseṣaṇāni vivecanīyāni, teṣu (=adoṣaguṇālamkāreṣu) ca doṣābhāvaḥ pradhānam. sati doṣe guṇāder apyakiñcitkaratvāt. yad āha 'syād vapuḥ sundaram api...' iti. sati tu doṣābhāve guṇādikam vinā pi kiñcidāhlādasambhavāt. 'apadoṣataiva viguṇasya guṇa' iti nyāyāt.

Kāvyapradīpa, introduction to VII, 1 (p. 168).

^{4.} Abhinavabhāratī on Nāṭyaśāstra XVI, 83 (K. M. edn.), p. 312 of the Ms. in possession of Dr. S. K. De.

absence of poetic blemishes (adoṣa or apadoṣatā) is itself an excellence, so to speak. As an analogy, we may just take an instance from ordinary life. Man is hardly immune from defects. The less his faults, the greater his estimation among his fellow beings. To be faultless—is one of the highest certificates that he can expect to have from the society. Similar is the case with these theorists' conception of poetry with regard to its flaws.

But from this it will be unwise to understand the theorists to imply that the poet's duty is finished if he engages all his attention towards avoiding the technical faults mentioned by them. Theorists themselves have hardly concurred with regard to the nature and scope of the individual Dosas—their classification, number and nomenclature and their relationship with other poetic factors. These have more or less changed with the advent of new schools of theorists and with the change in their poetic outlook. And what was considered to be a Dosa by a particular theorist or a school of opinion has, not infrequently, been looked upon as a Guṇa or Alamkāra by another. What standard would one follow in such a state of mutual disagreement among theorists?

^{5.} For instance, Bhāmaha's Sasamśaya-doṣa (iv, 17-18) which consists in a doubtful state of mind due to the use of common attributes of two objects without any differentiating quality, tends to approach Śleṣālaṃkāra of Rucaka (Alaṃkārasūtra, 33, p. 101) and Mammaṭa (sūtra 119, p. 509). His illustration of the same Doṣa (iv, 19) has been cited by Hemacandra in his commentary on the Kāvyānuśāsana (p. 279. l.21) as an example of Sasandeha Alaṃkāra. Vāmana's illustration of the first variety of his arthaguṇa Ojas (nayanasamuttham jyotir atreḥ under iii, 2, 2, p. 84) corresponds to that of Mammaṭa's Kliṣṭadoṣa (atri-locanasambhūta-jyotirudgamabhāsibhiḥ, verse No. 158 on p. 284, under sūtra 72). Instances of this kind are not rare in Alaṃkāra works.

And is it really a matter of high commendation if the poet only keeps his composition free from the technical blemishes? Does it not require a positive individual merit of its own (no matter whether it is due to Guṇa or Alamkāra or to any other factor) in order to receive wide appreciation? These are questions to which theorists must have been alive as a result of which they could not rest satisfied with formulating the character and application of Doṣas alone but had to look elsewhere for positive poetic beauty. Doṣahāna as such has no positive value. It relegates poetry to a position in which poetic beauty is neither marred nor brought into effective relief?

On the other hand it is equally wrong to hold that the fault universally mars the poetic effect for it will be seen hereafter that what is ordinarily understood to constitute a fault serves to enhance the poetic charm in certain circumstances when, for instance, it is quite in keeping with the situation depicted or, in the words of the later theorists, maintains the rules of propriety (aucitya). This is how the later classification of Dosas into nitya and anitya (classes) arose. We shall have ample opportunity to discuss it afterwards but here we may take a single instance in passing. Punarukta

^{6.} Thus Vāmana lays equal emphasis upon the avoidance of faults (doṣahāna—vṛtii under i, 1, 3. p. 9) as well as the utilisation of Guṇas and Alamkāras (guṇālamkārādāna-ibid) in the matter of creating poetic beauty. Some of the later writers, e.g., Mammaṭa, Hemacandra, Bhoja and Vāgbhaṭa, follow him when they incorporate at the same breath the absence of poetic faults and the presence of poetic excellences and figures in their definition of poetry.

^{7.} Strictly speaking, poetry is not worth the name unless it possesses poetic beauty. We may remember in this connection Kuntaka's well-known line.....alamhrtasya kāvyatvam iti sthitih, na punah kāvyasyālamkārayagah. (V. J. p. 7. ll. 3—4).

(repetition or redundancy) is ordinarily a poetic fault but it ceases to be so, nay, it suits the circumstances admirably when the speaker is in a fit of compassion for somebody or is engaged in attracting another's notice to some particular object and so on. What is actually meant, therefore, is not that absence or presence of poetic flaws as such determines the acceptability or otherwise of a particular composition but that it is the intrinsic beauty of a poem (no matter whether it is due to Rasa, Alamkāra or any other poetic factor) that makes it fit for the reader's appreciation. And when this is existing, the absence or presence of Dosa generally serves to produce a difference in the degree of charmingness—the former always helps its appreciation in the sense that it never hinders it: the latter definitely hinders it unless sometimes it suits the circumstances which have been depicted. But, although we may not accept the absence of Dosa as the single criterion of poetic beauty, its essential importance in the theory of poetry can never be too highly enjoined. The priority of the treatment of Dosa, to the other poetic elements, by almost all theorists is perhaps not without some significance. When this is explained, as Gopendra Tripurahara has rightly done, by

Here the word hanyate is repeated to imply excessive pity.

Kim cintayasi sakhe tvam, vacmi tvām asmi pašya pašyedam t
nanu kim na pašyasīdrk pašya sakhe, sundaram straiņam.

(Rudraţa, Kāvyālamkāra VI, 35. p. 70).

Here notice of the friend is attracted to an assembly of beautiful ladies and so the repetition of the word pasya is not faulty.

anukampādyatišayo yadi kašcid vivakṣyate |
 na doṣaḥ punarukto'pi, pratyuleyam alamkriyā |
 hanyate sā varārohā smarenākānḍa-vairinā |
 hanyate cāru-sarvāngī hanyate manjubhāṣinī |
 (Kāvyādarša, iv. 14-15).

the popular maxim that evils should be averted prior to one's pursuit of welfare's, the propriety of the theorists' advocacy for the avoidance of poetic Dosas with all the emphasis they could command, is very clearly understood. Man's first instinct is to live and to be safe from danger, the question of attaining power and eminence comes next.

This appears to be the general position of Dosa in the treatment of all theorists-old and new. But the early writers' treatment of the theory of Poetry being itself of a rudimentary character, they naturally conceived Dosa from a more or less limited point of view i.e. only so far as it was connected with the śabda and the artha. The Rasadosa did not naturally find any place in their system although some such idea of aucitya or propriety, the breach of which lies at the root of all Rasadosas, appears to have struck them when they spoke, as has been already noted, of Dosas ceasing to be such. They did not, of course, mention the word aucitya explicitly but, nevertheless, the spirit was there and it is not improbable that they supplied crude materials for the logical development of the idea of aucitya in the later theory of poetry. Moreover, they could not clearly discern to what extent Dosa mars the poetic beauty-whether it stands as a solid block to its appreciation or it lessens the poetic charm existing in a particular composition or it completely destroys that charm so as to exclude the composition concerned from the range of poetry. The question of these finer distinctions in the nature of Dosa did not arise till the Post-dhvani writers 10 Candidasa and, following

^{9. &#}x27;iṣṭānuvartanāt kuryāt prāganiṣṭa-nivartanam' ii nītyā guṇālamkārādānāt pūrvam doṣahānam eva kavinā kartavyam iti sūcayitum doṣahānasya prathamato nirdesaḥ kṛtaḥ. Kāmadhenu, on Vāmana i, 1, 3. (ll. 3-5, p. 10).

^{10.} Kāvyaprakāśadīpikā, p. 13, Kāvyapradīpa, p. 170, ll-1-19 and Sāhityadarpaņa, p. 9. ll. 3-10 and p. 11. ll. 1-8,

him, Viśvanātha and specially Govinda took it up. The Pre-dhvani theorists appear to deal with the broad aspect of the subject from only a commonsense point of view, namely, that the Doṣas are bad and as such they should be avoided and in their treatment Doṣa generally possesses a character opposite to that of Guṇa. This will be explained as we proceed with the Guṇa Doctrine of different theorists of this period. The Post-dhvani writers, however, judge Doṣa to be a poetic element that remains subordinate to Rasa (just like Guṇa and Alaṅkāra) but since the word and its sense are means for the manifestation of Rasa they could not avoid reckoning the śabda- and artha-doṣas as well.

CHAPTER II.

PLACE OF LAKṢAṇA GUṇA AND ALAMKĀRA IN BHARATA'S NĀṬYAŚĀSTRA.

Bharata's Lakṣaṇa as read by Abhinavagupta.

In the previous chapter we have briefly discussed the general position of Dosa in the treatment of poetic theorists—old and new—in order to examine how far the absence of Dosa can be treated as a source of poetic charm. Now, before we take up the subject of our study proper, namely, the historical development of the Concepts of Rīti and Guna, we propose to explain, in this chapter, the broad character of the elements Guna, Lakṣaṇa and Alamkāra as they are found in the Nātyaśāstra of Bharata, the earliest extant work on Dramaturgy which contains materials for the later development of a systematic theory of poetry. This will involve a discussion about the mutual relationship, if any, of these elements and the context in which they occur i. e. their relationship with the main current of Bharata's treatment. Incidentally, we shall discuss an important and interesting topic, namely, the peculiar nature of Bharata's Laksana as read by Abhinavagupta and deduce therefrom the chronological relation of Kuntaka and Abhinavagupta.

Bharata's Nāṭyaśāstra, as the very name of the work shows, deals with dramatic techniques and as such his Guṇas, Alamkāras etc., have ultimately to be judged according to the part they play towards producing the

dramatic effect i. e. towards the realisation of (dramatic)¹ Rasa. Abhinaya (representation) is, in Bharata's theory, a very important factor in the realisation of Rasa because it very clearly brings out the respective functions of vibhāva and anubhāva² of a particular Rasa. Bharata and, following him, later writers of Dramaturgy enumerate four different types³ of abhinaya, viz, (1) āṅgika (gestural), (2) vācika (vocal), (3) sāttvika (internal—conveyed by the manifestations of internal feelings) and (4) āhārya (extraneous—conveyed by dress, ornaments etc.) Of these four, the first three are very intimately associated⁴ with

- 1. Strictly speaking, no distinction is possible between the dramatic Rasa and the poetic Rasa because Rasa is a peculiar cittarytti which the spectator of a dramatic performance and the Reader of a kāvya may equally experience. Here the expression is used loosely in consideration of the special branch of study (Dramaturgy) which forms the subject at hand.
 - 2. bhāvābhinaya-sambandhān sthāyibhāvāms tathā budhāḥ |
 āsvā inyanti manasā, tasmān nāṭyarasāḥ smṛtāḥ. ||
 Nāṭyaśāstra (K. M. edn.), VI, 34.
 loka-svabhāvasamsıddhā loka-yātrānugāminaḥ. |
 anubhāvā bibhāvāśca jñeyāstvabhinayair budhaiḥ. ||
 ivid, VII, 6.

The Chowkhamba text (vi, 33) reads bhāvābhinaya-samyuktāh and sthāyibhāvāh (in the first two feet of verse I above) which are apparently incorrect. The terms vibhāva and anubhāva need hardly be explained to an advanced student of Sanskrit Poetics.

- 3. āngiko vācikašcaiva hyāhāryah sāttvikas tathā.

 jnevas trabhinayo viprāš caturdhā parikalpitah |

 Should not viprāh be vipraih? ibid, VIII, 9.
- 4. vibhāvenoddhīto yo'rthastvanubhāvaisca gamyate. \\
 vāganga-sattvābhinayaih sa bhāva iti samjnitah. \|
 ibid, VII, I.

 vibhāva iti kasmād ucyate, vibhāvo vijnānārthah. vibhāvyante'
 nena vāgangasattvābhinayā ityato vibhāvah.

 ibid, under VII, 3.

 Similarly...anubhāva...iti kasmāt....yad ayam anubhāvayati.

 vāgangasattvakrtam abhinayam. ibid, under VII, 4.

bhāva, bibhāva, anubhāva etc. The angābhinaya has been discussed at great length in six chapters (VIII-XIII). Then begins the treatment of vācikābhinaya or vākyā-bhinaya in ch. XIV of the K. M. text and ch. XV of the Chowkhamba text⁵. One would curiously note the strikingly small number of verses in ch. XIV of the K. M. text compared with the number in ch. XV of the other. This is due, as the editors of the Ch. text have noted in the foot-note (p. 169), to the fact that 108 verses from the beginning of the chapter are found only in the Ka pustaka

5. It is very interesting to note that the two printed texts of the Nāţya-śāstra, which we have mainly consulted, maintain considerable difference in reading and arrangement in many places. The Chowkhamba text appears to have a greater number of verses in all the chapters (except in ch. VI where both have 83 verses) than the Kāvyamālā text. The principle of arrangement is almost the same upto chapter VIII in both the texts. But a variation continues from chapter IX. The Chowkhamba text has 207 verses in this chapter named as hastābhinaya and the next chapter that deals with sarīrābhinaya has got 55 verses. The K. M. text, on the other hand, includes the matter of both these chapters in a single chapter (i. e. ch. IX named aṅgābhinaya) which is a very long one comprising in all 247 verses (i. e. 194 against Chowkhamba's 207 plus 53 against Chowkhamba's 55). The arrangement in some of the subsequent chapters is as follows:—

Ch. text	K. M. Text
Chapter name number of	Chapter name number of
verses	verses
XI. Cārīvidhāna 100	X. Cārīvidhāna 99
XII. Maṇḍalavidhāna 57	XI. Maṇḍalakalpana 58
XIII. Gatipracāra 227	XII. Gatipracāra 192
XIV. Pravrttidharma-	XIII. Karayuktidhar-
vyañjaka 83	mivyañjaka 64
XV. Vācikābhinayacchan-	XIV. Vācikābhinaye
dovibhāga 119	chandovidhāna 11
XVI Chandoviciti 169	XV. Chandovrttavidhi 167
XVII. Vagabhinaya 123	XVI. Alamkāralakşaņa 118

probably corresponding to our Ch. text. The first few of these 108 verses emphasise the importance of vāgabhinaya (tasmād vācah param nāsti vāk hi sarvasya kāranam XV, 3c-d, Ch. text) on the ground that it is words which make up the body of all śāstras (vānmayānīha śāstrāni XV, 3a) and that other kinds of representation serve only to help the vāgabhinaya by giving a poignant effect to it (anga-nepathya-tattvāni vākyārtham vyanjayanti hi XV, 2a-b) implying thereby that they are all subordinate to the vācikābhinaya. The latter portion of this chapter, however, deals, rightly according to Bharata's pronouncement in the last verse of the previous chapter (punasca vākyābhinayain yathāvad vaksye svara-vyanjana-varnayutam XIV, 83c-d, Ch. T.), with vowels and consonants as well as their place of utterance and the different types of words (nāma, ākhyāta etc). As letters are the units of words and words constitute the units of language, Bharata proceeds to discuss these together with a scheme of metres (chandas) which covers the last portion of this as well as the whole of the subsequent chapter. These are, after all, merely an elementary discussion about vācikābhinaya of which the treatment of Laksanas, Dosas, Gunas and Alamkāras in chapter XVII (Ch. text) constitutes the literary aspect and therefore the most important part. The general theoretical position of these elements appears to be that they constitute the beauty or otherwise of the language in which dramatic characters speak, and this is the only way in which their inclusion under the vācikābhinaya can be justified.

But it must be remembered that the part which these elements, as embodied in *vācikābhinaya*, play in calling forth Rasa in Bharata's treatment, has been very remote and it is probably for this that Bharata's successors in the Pre-dhvani schools judge their position on their own merit and not in relation to Rasa, which had not been

assigned much importance in their theory of Poetry. Even Bharata himself does not appear to have been particular about the application of these exclusively in connection with drama. His indiscriminate use of the terms $k\bar{a}vya$ and $n\bar{a}taka^a$ in the same context in many cases goes directly against that position. It possibly shows that either the later theoretical distincttion between the drśya and śravya varieties of kāvya was not much favoured by Bharata: or even if it were, he expected his readers to understand the term $k\bar{a}vya$ as used by him to mean nataka from the context i.e. the subject of his treatment. The first assumption justifies the position that he did not maintain any great theoretical distinction between the aforesaid types of poetry and quite naturally the technical elements of Dramaturgy, as advocated in his school, found a permanent place in the theory of poetry: the second is unwise, for a scholar who himself understands the peculiar character of two distinct objects would never ask others to ignore it.

No attempt has, however, been made by Bharata to connect the elements of Lakṣaṇa, Alamkāra, Doṣa and Guṇa either mutually or with the main current of his treatment. These are brought in abruptly without any sufficient introduction, except that in the last verse of the chapter dealing with metres, he remarks:

vṛttair evam tu vividhair nānācchandaḥ-samudbhavaiḥ kāvya-bandhās tu kartavyāḥ ṣaṭtrimśallakṣaṇānvitāḥ ॥ (XVI, 169. Ch. T.)

^{6.} vāvi yatnustu kartavyo nātyasyeyam tanuh smṛtā (XV,2a-b) kāvyabandhās tu kartavyāh saṭtrimsalluksaṇānvitāh (XVI. 169.

^{......} sabdacyutam vai dasa kāvyadosāh | XVII, 88d. ete dosāstu vijneyāh sūribhir nāṭakāsrayāh | XVII, 95a-b. (ali in Ch. T).

At the commencement of the next chapter, Bharata discusses in some detail 36 varieties of dramatic Lakṣaṇas⁷. Next in context comes the treatment of Alaṅkāras or figures of poetry of which four (namely, upamā, rūpaka, dīpaka and yamaka) are mentioned, defined and classified. They are followed by the treatment of nāṭakāśraya doṣas, which are also called kāvyadoṣas, and which, like the Guṇas that come after them, are enumerated as ten in number. Here Bharata's text runs thus:—

ehhir arthakriyāpekṣaiḥ kāvyam kāryam tu lakṣaṇaiḥ tata ūrdhvam tu vakṣyāmi kāvyadoṣāmstathāvidhān* (XVII, 87, Ch. T.)

From this, one may aptly be led to understand that Bharata has included the Alamkāras under the scope of

Kāvyadoṣāh is evidently corrupted in place of kāvyadoṣān. Another difference is noticed with regard to the word arthakriyāpekṣam. The K. M. text appears to have the sanction of Abhinava on this point. However, it is immaterial whether arthakriyāpekṣa refers to kāvya or Lakṣaṇa so long as we generally accept Abhinava's likely interpretation of this word as ar thakriyāyām rasacar vaṇāyām yuktam.....(p. 311, op. cit).

^{7.} The Lakṣaṇas do not separately exist in the treatment of poetic theorists, except in Jayadeva's Candrāloka and in the chapter on Dramaturgy in Viśvanātha's Sāhitya-darpaṇa. The functions and characteristics of some of the Lakṣaṇas (as mentioned in the K. M. text) are attributed to Guṇas and Alaṃkāras by some of the predhvani writers; while later writers like Viśvanātha include some of them under the Nāṭyālaṃkāras. It is remarkable at the same time that the Lakṣaṇas, as mentioned in the Ch. text, are almost the same as those found in Viśvanātha, excepting prāpti and kṣabha which receive the names of jāāpti and saṃkṣepa in the Sāhitya-darpaṇa. (Ch. VI, Kar. 434, pp. 365-66).

^{8.} The K. M. text reads, (XVI, 83)

ebhirarthakriyāpekṣam kāvyam kāryam tu lakṣaṇaiḥ |

ata ūrdhvam pravakṣyāmi kāvyadoṣāḥ samāsataḥ ||

his Laksanas and there is no denying the fact that his own treatment has left no clue for the distinction of one set from the other. On the contrary, he appears to confuse the issue still further when he defines a particular Laksana in terms of Gunas and Alamkāras. It seems that Bharata's definition and classification of Laksana. Alamkāra and Guna are somewhat dogmatic. The fundamental distinction between these three classes of poetic elements is hardly apparent, and some of the characteristics of Laksanas may as well be considered as belonging to Alamkāras and Gunas. Apparently an early writer like Bharata does not mean to imply any theoretic distinction between Laksanas, Gunas and Alamkāras, but accepts and repeats traditional nomenclature and takes them all as beautifying factors of poetry generally, just as in Bhāmaha and partly in Dandin the distinction between Gunas and Alamkaras is not very sharply indicated.

In this connection, we may note Abhinava's peculiar views on Bharata's Lakṣaṇas. While commenting on Bharata's Lakṣaṇas in ch. XVI of the Abinavabhāratī, Abhinava refers to a number of views on the position of the Concept of Lakṣaṇa in poetry¹°. He remarks in connection with the verse XV, 167 K. M. T. (=XVI, 169 Ch. T. quoted above) that the Lakṣaṇas are the most important factors in kāvya-bandha and the treatment of other elements comes as a matter of course in their

Does this indicate, to some extent, the comprehensive character of Lakṣaṇa?

^{9.} alamkūrair guņaiscaiva bahubhih samalamkṛtam.
bhūṣaṇair iva citrūrthais tad bhūṣaṇam iti smṛtam.
(XVI, 6, Ch. T.)

^{10.} Mr. V. Raghavan has fully dealt with these views in his paper on 'The Concept of Laksana in Bharata' in Journal of Oriental Research, Madras (Vol. VI, pp. 54-82).

connexion¹¹. Later on, while he introduces Bharata's treatment of Alamkāras, he says that Lakṣaṇas constitute the body of $k\bar{a}vya$ i. e. poetic expression which is embellished by the Poetic figures on the analogy of human body being adorned with ornaments12. Then again, while commenting on the verse yatkiñcit kāvyabandhesu sādrśyenopamīyate etc. (XVI, 42, K.M. text) that Upamā, Abhinava remarks: kāvyabandheşu kāvya-lakṣaṇeṣu satsu ityanena gauriva gavaya iti nāyam alamkāra iti daršitam (p. 308). Here the Laksana has been clearly identified with kāvyabandha i.e. poetic speech itself and naturally it involves all the necessary charm that makes poetry what it is. This view has been more clearly set forth in the lines that come immediately afterwards and run thus: -bandho gumpho bhanitir vakroktih kavivyāpāra13 iti hiparyāyāt laksanam tvalamkāraśūnyam

^{11.} Lakṣaṇānyeva hi pradhānam. tatprasange grahā(guṇā)-lamkārā iti. (p. 289, op. cit.)

^{12.} evam kavi-vyāpāra-balād yad arthajātam laukikāt svabhāvād vidyamānam tad eva lakṣaṇam ityuktam, tatra (taṣṇa?)
\$arīrakaipasyālamkārā adhunā vaktavyāh, tannırūpayitum uddis ti
upametyādi (XVII, 43, Ch. T.), kāvye tāvallakṣaṇam śarīram,
ta-yopamādayas trayo'rthabhāgāh, yathā hi pṛthagbhūtena hāreṇa
ramaṇī vibhūṣyate tathopamānena śasinā etatsādṛṣyena vā kavibuddhi-parivartamānatvāt pṛthakṣiddhenaiva prakṛta-varṇanīyavanitāva-lanādi sundarīkriyata iti tadevālamkārah (p. 307. op cit.)

^{13.} Anticipating an objection that if Lakṣaṇa is equated with kavivyāpāra, it should have innumerable varieties instead of thirty-six, Abhinava replies that these are the principal varieties, others may be similarly enumerated if the poet so feels (saṭṭriṁsad iti ca nānyādi-vāraṇa-paraṁ(?), kavi-hṛdayavarttinām api parisaṁ-khyeyatvāt kintu bāhulyena tāvad iyatāpakṣavyāptam(?) iti ca-kavinā'vadhātavyam p. 289, op. cit.). Indeed, such a comprehensive poetic factor brooks only two types of enumeration—either a single variety having a very wide sphere or innumerable varieties—each occupying a narrow scope.

api na nirarthakam (p. 308, op. cit.). This remark undoubtedly reminds one of Kuntaka's theory of poetry and the individual skill of the poet that underlies it. In another place Abhinava refers to the view of his upādhyāya¹⁴ (meaning Bhaṭṭa Tauta, author of the Kāvyakautuka) in connexion with the relationship between Lakṣaṇa and Alamkāra and remarks upādhyāyamatantu dl)akṣaṇabalāt alamkārānām vaicitryam¹⁵

14. Abhinava often mentions Bhattendurāja (Olocana p. 160, l. 6) and Bhatta Tota (or Bhatta Tauta...Olocana p. 29, l. 9 and p. 178, l. 7) as his upādhyāyas. Who is being specifically referred to here? It is interesting to note in this connection that Bhatta Tauta's name is found very frequently mentioned in the Abhinava-bhāratī. In the present case Abhinava does not mention him by name but later on he has told us in one place (ch. XIX) that in the opinion of Bhatta Tota Lakṣṇṇas along with other poetic factors, Alamkāra, Guṇa, etc. help the suggestion of Rasa. He says:—tathā coktam bhattatotena,

lakṣaṇālamkṛtiguṇā doṣāh śabdapravṛttayaḥ | Vṛttisandhyanga samrambhaḥ samhāro yah kaveḥ kila || anyo'nyasyānukūlyena sambhūaiva samutthitaiḥ | jhatityeva rasā yatra vyajyante hlādibhir guṇaiḥ ||

We know nothing about the treatment of Lakşana by the other guru of Abhinava, namely, Bhattendurāja. It appears, therefore, that Bhatta Tauta, and not Bhattendurāja is referred to by Abhinava here.

15. Here, the term vaicitrya may have two meanings—(1) manifoldness and (2) charmingness. Abhinavagupta apparently uses it in the first sense when, following his upādhyāya, he understands the Lakṣaṇas to be factors that serve to multiply three of the four Alamkāras of Bharata into many. But when we go through his remarks in connection with the individual Lakṣaṇas it appears that he has accepted the second meaning too. While explaining the technical Lakṣaṇa, Guṇakirtana, he says: lakṣaṇāni hi alamkārān api citrayanti. Here, Abhinava is taking citrayanti to mean beautify (as his use of the word api would imply). Now, if the Lakṣaṇa is to be kāzyaśarīra or poetic

āgacchati. tathā hi gunānuvada-nāmnā laksaņena yogāt praśamsopamā, atiśaya-nāmno (ā?) 'tiśayoktih, manorathākhyenāprastuta-praśamsā, mithyādhyavasāyenāpahnu*tih.....*(p. 308).

Now although such peculiar views, namely that (1) the Laksana is identical with kāryabandha instead of being one of its beautifying factors and that (2) its presence accounts for the multiplication or charmingness (vaicitrya) of the Alamkaras may not strictly fit in with the treatment of Bharata where there is a clear tendency for embellishing the kāvyabandha as much by the Laksanas¹⁶ as by

expression, it itself stands in need of extraneous decoration and as such it cannot be taken to beautify the Alamkara. Either it must not be looked upon as kāvya-sarīra or, if it should, it must cease to be a beautifying factor. Abhinava would probably justify himself by saying that an object, which has an exquisite grace of its own, may serve to cast into the background even the beauty of its decorating factor. In that sense Laksana may be said to beautify even the Alamkara. In this connection we may remember the well-known lines of the Kumārasambhava:

anyo'nyasobhajananad babhuva 1

sādhāraņo bhūsanabhūsvabhāvah 1 (i, 42 cd.)

Where Parvati's necklace and her breasts have been taken to beautify each other.

16. When Bharata explicitly said that kavyabandha should be endowed with 36 Laksanas (sattrimsallaksananvitah XVI, 169 Ch. T.) it appears strange how it can be identified with that poetic factor. It should be noted, in this connection, that after we had studied Abhinavagupta's treatment of Bharata's Laksanas and written out this chapter of our work, we had the kind privilege of discussing it with Prof. S. P. Bhattacharyya in order to be fortified in our finding. He then closely studied the individual Laksanas of Bharata and told us that Bharata's Laksana might well be taken as an 'elastic Poetic Principle' which, like Kuntaka's Vakrokti, includes, within its wide scope, other poetic elements. He expressed his willingness to write a separate paper on Bharata's Laksanas, where he would maintain Abhinavagupta's position that Bharata's Laksana is much more than a poetic element like Guna and Alamkara. We are eagerly waiting to see an independent paper from the learned pen of the venerable professor.

the Alainkāras and the Guṇas and where many of the Alainkāras mentioned under the name of Abhinava's upādhyāya are conspicuous by their absence, they undoubtedly carry some amount of historical importance since they tend to show the relationship of Abhinava's Lakṣaṇa with the theory of Vakrokti and to determine the chronology of Kuntaka and Abinava as well as the ultimate source upon which both of them are probably drawing. Considering all the remarks of Abhinava quoted above, one would form some definite idea of the characteristics of Lakṣaṇa. They are:

- (1) Lakṣaṇas are essential in $k\bar{a}vya$: other poetic elements stand subordinate to them.
- (2) The scope of Lakṣaṇa is as wide as kāryabandha or poetic expression in general.
- (3) Alamkāras augment the beauty of the $k\bar{a}vya$ -bandha, hence of the Lakṣaṇas.
- (4) Lakṣaṇa has got a natural grace of its own due to the peculiarity of the poet's individual power by reason of which it serves to make poetry acceptable even without further embellishments and in absence of which poetry becomes flat and vapid and consequently unworthy of the name of it.
- (5) The presence of Lakṣaṇas adds to the charm of the Alamkāras i.e. Lakṣaṇa is also a beautifying factor of Alamkāra.

Now, in the wide range of Abhinava's Lakṣaṇa, one is naturally inclined to read the comprehensive character of Kuntaka's Vakrokti. Secondly, the peculiarity of the poet's skill involved in the natural grace of Abhinava's Lakṣaṇa or kāvyabandha has its counter-part in the vaidagdhyabhangī of Kuntaka. And lastly, the capacity, which Abhinava's Lakṣaṇa possesses for giving a poignant effect to the charm of the Alamkāras, clearly reminds

one of Bhāmaha's Vakrokti which lies at the basis of all Alamkāras (ko'lamkāro'nayā vinā-Bhāmaha, ii. 85d.) Moreover, Abhinava's quotation of Bhāmaha's line saisā sarvaiva vakroktir anayārtho vibhāvyate (p. 289, op.cit.) in support of his description of Bharata's Laksana and his explicit use of the terms gumpha, bhaniti, kavivyāpāra etc. (so well-known in Kuntaka) adequately testify to the fact that Abhinava was thoroughly acquainted with the theories and principles of either Kuntaka himself or some earlier theorist who formulated the same line of opinion. Now, amongst the earlier theorists, we know that only Bhāmaha expounded a theory of Vakrokti as the basis of all Alamkāras but it may be easily seen that his conception of Vakrokti was not so mature or developed as could be utilised by Abhinava in connection with his treatment of Bharata's Laksanas. The terms and expressions used by Abhinava are undoubtedly those of Kuntaka and this makes it highly probable that the Vakroktijīvita appeared earlier than the Abhinavabhāratī and Abhinava quite consciously identified (Bharata's) Laksana with Kuntaka's Vakrokti. When, in ascertaining the date of Kuntaka, Dr. A. Sankaran noted the similarities in Abhinava's works and Kuntaka's Vakroktijīvita (p. 119. Some Aspects of Literary Criticism) and remarked (p. 120) "probably the Vakrokti-jīvita appeared late in the life of Abhinava," he probably did not go into the details of Abhinava's treatment of Laksana. The truth, however, seems to be that Abhinava utilised portions of the treatment of Kuntaka but did not quote him anywhere by name because he was not much earlier than himself and the views expounded by him had not, still then (and in fact never), been established in the Sastra. Dr. Sankaran rightly observes that though the Vakroktijīvita "put forward a different theory, it did not demand

serious consideration from a greater thinker like Abhinava because it recognised adequately the importance of Dhvani and Rasa in poetry......" (ibid). Another probable conclusion is that both Abhinava and Kuntaka are drawing upon one and the same source and this is the Kāvyakautuka of Bhaṭṭa Tauta whose work is unfortunately lost to us but whose views are quoted by later writers like Caṇḍīdāsa (°dīpikā, p. 7), Kṣemendra (Kar. 35 Aueityavicāracarccā), Hemacandra (pp. 3 and 316 Kāvyānuśāsana) and Rucaka (p. 13, l. 23. Vyaktivivekavyākhyā).

It is clear from their remarks that Bhatta Tauta emphasised the individual power of the poet in the composition of poetry (tasya karma smṛtam kāvyam) and certainly he was the first to note this fact and Kuntaka only derived it from him. Now, the close similarities between the character of Abhinava's (interpretation of Bharata's) Laksana on the one hand and Kuntaka's Vakrokti on the other make it probable that both of these theorists are indebted to Bhatta Tauta for the formulation of the theories of Laksana and Vakrokti, in both of which kavivyāpāra plays the most important part. Kuntaka appears to have been inspired by the teaching of Tauta which he critically combined with the views of Bhamaha in order to expound his theory of Vakrokti. Abhinava naturally subscribed to his guru's views on Laksana and did not mind borrowing the expressions and terms of a theorist who humbly accepted one of the main teachings of Abhinava's venerable guru although he used it for a different purpose, namely, the formulation of a theory which deviated from the beaten tracks of the Sastra. By utilising the treatment of Kuntaka, he has indirectly glorified his own guru Tauta.

CHAPTER III.

THE GUNA DOCTRINE IN

The general theoretical position of Guṇa in Bharata's scheme of *Dramaturgy* has been already determined. We have seen that this element theoretically constitutes, just like Lakṣaṇa and Alainkāra, the beauty of the language in which dramatic characters speak, justifying thereby its inclusion under the vācikābhinaya. It has, at the same time, been suggested that Bharata's Guṇas (as well as other embellishing elements of drama) have nothing peculiar in them so as to make their presence impossible in poetry. With this assumption we now proceed to examine, with the help of available materials, the Guṇa Doctrine in Bharata's Nāṭyaśāstra.

It is somewhat remarkable that no writer of the predhvani schools, with the exception of Vāmana, offers a general definition of Guṇa. All these early writers have thought it sufficient to mention the different Guṇas as undefined excellences of poetry, assign a place to them in their systems and merely describe and classify various kinds of such excellences.

Of Vāmana's predecessors, Bharata, as we have already noted in the previous chapter, makes the Guṇas (along with Doṣas and Alainkāras) theoretically subordinate to Rasa not directly but only through an indirect association (paramparā-sambandha). His Doṣas, however, unlike those of Vāmana and others, constitute

positive entities¹ and the Guṇas are described as the negations of these Doṣas². In this connection, it may be noted that each of the Guṇas of Bharata is not, in fact the opposite of a corresponding Doṣa although Guṇas like his Mādhurya (XVI, 98, K. M. T.) and Śliṣṭa (XVI, 94, K. M. T.) may be construed in some of their aspects, as the opposites of Doṣas like Ekārtha (XVI, 88, K. M. T.) and Arthahīna (XVI, 86, K. M. T.). Perhaps it is not meant that each of the Guṇas should be strictly regarded

^{1.} Jacobi is probably right in remarking that the Dosas have been treated as positive entities from the commonsense point of view, for it is easier to find out a fault and grasp its function, while an excellence is more conveniently apprehended by considering it as a negation of an easily understood fault. (Sb. der preuss. Akad., xxiv, 1922, p. 223 referred to in S. K. De, Sanskrit Poetics. Vol. 1I, p. 14)

^{2.} The K. M. text, after mentioning and defining the Dosas (XVI, 84-90) reads: gunā viparyayād esām mādhuryaudāryalaksanah (XVI, 91 c-d). The reading has the sanction of Abhinavagupta, but what should be the exact meaning of the term viparyaya here? If viparyaya is to mean 'opposite', it is difficult to see why Mādhurva and Audārva only should be specifically mentioned here leaving all other Gunas. The Ch. text reads : ela eva viparyasta gunāh kāvyesu kīrtitāh (XVII, 950-d). From Abhinava's comments it appears that we should understand by the term viparyaya negation i. e. absence or 'non-existence' and not 'opposite'. Abhinava distinctly remarks etad-dosa-vighata eva guno bhavatītvarthah. kim-visesanair ityaha madhuryaudarye laksane=ankau yeşām. It is probable, therefore, that Mādhurya and Audārya are mentioned to restrict the scope of the Gunas. It should not be understood that wherever these Dosas are absent, there exist Gunas. gunā viparyayāt etc., means that Gunas must keep clear of these blemishes and they must be restricted to that special set of ten viz. Mādhurya, Audārya etc., which has been enumerated here. When viparyaya is taken to mean 'opposite' the names Mādhurya and Audārya are not necessary: when it means abhāva they have a significance.

as an opposite of an already defined Dosa. For in that case it would have been enough if the definition of a Dosa were given, and there would have been no need for defining the corresponding Guna separately, as the Guna could be easily deduced from the Dosa defined. It may be suggested that each Guna is to be regarded as the opposite of some Dosa or other, and not necessarily of those alone which are defined. Thus, it is possible to imagine a set of ten Gunas, corresponding to the ten Dosas, and these may or may not correspond to the ten Gunas formally enumerated by him. This, perhaps, finds a parallel in the two sets of Dosas and viparyayas respectively, hinted at by Dandin and explicitly stated by Bhoja³, one of which constitutes the formally defined Dosas and the other constitutes the viparyayas of the defined excellences. But since Bharata has not given us any slightest suggestion to that effect it does not appear to be wise to take recourse to an ingenious way of conceiving an imaginary set of Dosas or of Gunas simply to ascribe the meaning 'opposite' to the word viparyaya as some of the later writers have done. It will, therefore, be more reasonable if we agree with Abhinava that viparyaya should mean vighāta i.e. absence or nonexistence. From Abhinava's remarks⁴ in connection with Bharata's description of the Dosas it is clear that poetry, in Abhinava's opinion, satisfies its definition, even without further embellishments, provided it be marked by a conspicuous

^{3.} Sarasvatī-kanthābharaņa, p. 24. The second set of Doşas which are the opposites of corresponding Guṇas has been termed arītimat (guṇānām dṛśyate yatra śleṣādīnām viparyayaḥ). Prakāśavarṣa also follows this procedure. Kasārṇavālamkāra, a work of the last-named writer, was published (in Vol. V. No. 1 of the I. H. Q.) by Pandit V. Venkatarama Sarma.

^{4.} etaddoşavihinam etc. guoted above on p. 2. Ch. I.

presence of Rasas, free from the faults mentioned before, and it succeeds in giving pleasure to the reader.

It may be asked that since the Dosas, as the very name suggests, constitute factors which should be carefully avoided, how is it that they have been treated by Bharata in a context which deals exclusively with those elements that go to enhance poetic beauty? The reason is not far to seek. We have only to remember that the Dosas in Bharata's work precede in context the Gunas; it is enjoined at the outset that the composition should be 'faultless', so that the reader may stand on a standard basis and prepare himself for the appreciation of poetic excellences that are described immediately afterwards. The post-dhyani writers, too, suggest in more than one place that absence of fault itself is a great merit. 5 The Kāmadhenu states that it is admitted on all hands that the Dosas have a deterring effect on poetry, but how can they be avoided unless their nature has been fully understood? It is also necessary to remember in this connection that later writers like Bhoja, Prakāśavarsa and others have divided Gunas into three classes, of which one deals especially with Dosas that have ceased to be such on account of their not marring the poetic effect under special circumstances. With reference to such Dosas Govinda

^{5.} anyo guno'stu vā mā'stu mahān nirdoṣatā gunah (Keśava-miśra's Alamkāra-śekhara, ii, 1. p 14)

apadoṣataiva viguṇasya guṇaḥ (Kāvyapradīpa, introduction to to VII, 1, p. 168).

^{6.} saundaryasya gunālamkāra-ghaţita-cārutvasya ākṣepaḥ svasthānāt pracyāvanam tasya hetavas tathāvidhā doṣāḥ kavinā jñātavyā ityanena doṣa-jñānasyāvasya-kartavyatoktā, teṣām ajñāne parityāgātmanaḥ phalasya durlabhatvād iti bhāvah.

Commentary on Vāmana's introduction to 11/i/1, ll. 4-6, p. 39).

and Viśvanātha, however, use the term Guṇa by upacāra (i. e. secondarily)⁷; but in their opinion such Guṇas do not fall under the category of the technical excellences. It will thus be clear that theorists of all ages have dealt with Doṣas and Guṇas side by side, and have even tried to establish a relation between the two elements; and readers and aspiring poets had to study both carefully, so that the one might be avoided and the other utilised.

The early writers on *Poetics* apparently regard Dosas and Guṇas as absolute entities,—that is, they are taken by themselves, and not in relation to Rasa as attributes or absence of attributes, conducing to its development or non-development. Although some of these writers take Guṇa as doṣābhāva and others consider Doṣa to be guṇābhāva, they all agree in this that both these elements constitute entities which can remain independent of any other constituent element of poetry. The term viparyaya which almost all of these early writers use in connection with Guṇas and Doṣas, has puzzled commentators and scholars. Our task, however, will be simplified if we take the word to mean abhāva, anyathābhāva or vaiparītya according to the tenour and treatment of the writer who uses the term.

As has been already said above, it would be an useless attempt to find in the specific Guṇas of Bharata always a direct opposite of the faults previously mentioned by him; for while presenting, in a few cases, the opposite of some of the aspects of the Doṣas, his Guṇas have often been given independent definitions. These definitions are, however, not always easy to grasp. Bharata's text itself is uncertain, and as is generally characteristic with an

^{7.} doşasyāpi...kvacit tu bhākto guṇavyavahāraḥ (Kāvyapra-dīpa, p. 352. Introduction to vii, 11). See also Sāhityadarpaṇa, vṛtti under Kar. 589. p. 487.

early theoriser, his treatment is often unsystematic and confused. The later sources which now exist to enlighten us as to the views of Bharata seem to have lost the spirit of Bharata's treatment. As for instance, Abhinavagupta, on principle, reads the views of Vāmana into the Gunas of Bharata. He has tried systematically to attribute to Bharata's treatment the twofold character of each of Vāmana's Gunas, both as a śabda-guna and as an arthaguna. It is possible that Abhinava thinks that Vāmana deduces his two classes of Gunas, relating to śabda and artha, from Bharata's composite definitions which, in his opinion, give indication of this twofold aspect in each Guna. Both Hemacandra and Mānikyacandra, again, who criticise the Guna-Doctrines of Pre-dhyani writers adhering, in the main, to the views of Mammata, seem, in spite of minor differences, to have drawn upon one ultimate source which cannot now be traced. words and expressions coincide verbatim in many places. Both refer to the views of Bharata in connection with each of the Gunas of Vamana and Dandin. They do not always quote Bharata but often summarise his views⁸. In their attempt to trace the development of the Concept of Guna, Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra apparently indicate that Vāmana establishes his own view by a criticism of Bharata's

^{8.} So long as we had to depend entirely on the K. M. text of this chapter of the Nāṭyaśāstra, the views of Bharata on some of the Guṇas, as referred to by Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra, appeared strange and could not be reconciled with the readings of the only available text. The definitions of Bharata's Samatā, Samādhi, Ojas, Arthavyakti and Udāratā as presented by Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra are different from those found in the K. M. text. The recent publication of the text in Chowkhamba, Benares Series, has thrown further light on these points and made most of their remarks intelligible.

treatment, and that Vāmana himself has sometimes been similarly criticised by Daṇḍin. Thus Abhinava, on one hand, and Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra, on the other, seem to have viewed differently the relation between Bharata and Vāmana, inasmuch as in Abhinava, the two theorists are made to represent identical views about the Guṇas, while in Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra, Vāmana is supposed to criticise and oppose Bharata in establishing his own system, sometimes to prepare the way for Daṇḍin. In the latter case, however, we are confronted with chronological difficulties, for here we have to accept the position that Daṇḍin came after Vāmana.

^{9.} While discussing the development of the Guṇas Samādhi, Arthavyakti and Kānti, Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra appear to hold that Daṇḍin established his definitions of these Guṇas by overthrowing those of Vāmana. Thus, Hemacandra remarks (commentary on Kāvyānuśāsana, pp. 197-98):

arthasya gunāntara-samādhānāt samādhir iti bharatah, ...so'yam atišnyohti-vešesa iti vāmanīyāh, tasmād ārohāvarohakramah samādhihtadidam guru-laghu-sancayayor anyo'nyāntaranam iti dandī, tasmād anya-dharmasyānyatra samādhānāt samādhih.

Similarly, Māṇikyacandra remarks (*samketa, p. 193) in connection with the Guna, Kānti:

Sıotramanah—prītikri kāntam ili bharatah. mādhuryam evedam. tasmād anjjvaiyam kāntir ili vāmanah.....ojasi aujjvalyatas (Hemcandra reads ojo'pi aujjva.yajogāt) tarhi kāntih. tasmāl lokasīmānatikramah kāntir ili daņdī.

We shall see later on that the character of the Guṇas ascribed here to the treatment of Vāmana and Daṇḍin really correspond to the definitions given by these theorists.

^{10.} In fact, these two theorists do not at all care for the chronological relationship between Vāmana and Daṇḍin. In connection with their remarks on the Guṇa Samatā, however, they appear to observe the order all right vis. Bharata—Daṇḍin—Vāmana (°saṃketa, p. 192 and Kāvyānuśāsana, com. p. 197).

But a perusal of the texts of Daṇḍin and Vāmana does not convince us that each criticised, on principle, the views of his predecessors. In some places, these later writers and commentators have the habit of reading their own views into the works of older theorists like Vāmana and Daṇḍin. We shall try to make this clear as we go on with Bharata's Guṇas and the treatment they received at the hands of theorists who came after him.

We have already said that Bharata describes Gunas as negations or absence, or more accurately the avoidance of Doşas.

He enumerates the Gunas thus:

ślesah prasādah samatā samādhir mādhuryam ojah pada-saukumāryam i arthasya ca vyaktir udāratā ca kāntiś ca kāvyasya guņā daśaite¹¹ i

(XVII, 96, Ch. T.)

We propose to consider, in detail, Bharata's conception of each of these Gunas along with the comments made by later writers:

1. SLESA is defined in a twofold way in two separate verses: (i) The Guṇa consists essentially of śleṣa or coalescence, and involves a coalescence (śliṣṭatā) of words connected with one another (sambaddhānuparamparam) through the collection of meanings desired by the poet (īpsitenārtha-jātena). (ii) This naturally well-knit (svatah supratibaddham) coalescence is in appearance

^{11.} The K. M. text reads kāvyārtha-guņā dašaite. This does not seem to be the right reading, for the definitions show that they cannot be regarded merely as artha-guṇas, unless we separate kāvyārtha and take it as "the sense of poetry", which phrasing is really redundant. Our reading here (kāvyasya guṇāḥ) has the sanction of the Abhinavabhāratī.

clear (sphuṭain svabhāvatah) but is to be comprehended by means of a subtle discernment (vicāra-gahanam.)¹².

Abhinavagupta explains the first of these verses as: kavisamutpreksitayā paraspara-sambaddhayā yojanayā sampannam yad īpsitam artha-jātam, tenopalaksitasyārthasya upapadyamānasya upapadyamānatātmā gunah ślesah. For illustration, Abhinava takes the same verse as has been given by Vāmana to illustrate his own artha-guna Ślesa. In explaining this illustrative verse (drstvaikāsana-sainsthite priyatame), 13 Abhinava remarks: atra manorathātīto'py eka-kāla-nāyikā-yugala-hrdaya grahana-lakṣanārthas tathopapādito yenāsambhāva nāspadain na bhavati, tena kuţilo'py ayain kramo na hrdaye ulvanatvam bhajate: majjati hrdaye yatah sarvasyeti. The last part of the remark seems to follow and explain Vāmana III, 2, 4, where the artha-guna Ślesa has been defined as ghatanā ślesah with the remark: krama-kautilyānulbanatvopapatti-yogo ahatanā, where the idea of upapatti or upapadyamānatā-suitability as Abhinava puts it) of many ideas occur. Again, by Bharata's supratibaddha Abinava is reminded of Vāmana's śābda-guna Ślesa which has been defined (iii, 1, 10) as

The Ch. Text (XVII, 97) reads vicārya grahaņam vriyā in the first quarter and svataḥ supratibandhaś ca in the third quarter of the second verse. Supratibandhaś ca is a doubtful reading. For vicāragahanam Abhinava appears to note an alternative reading, which the printed texts do not give: vicāropanatam, which he explains as vahra (th) ghaṭamānam velyarthaḥ. In the Ch. text the order of the above two verses has been interchanged.

^{12.} īpsitenārtha-jātena sambaddhānuparamparam \[
\begin{align*}
\text{slistatā yā padānām hi slesa ity abhidhīyate \(\)
\text{vicāra-gahanam yat syāt sphutam caiva svabhāvatah \(\)
\text{svatah supratibaddham ca slistam tat parikīrtitam \(\)
\text{(K. M. T., xvi, 93-94).}
\end{align*}
\]

^{13.} This well-known verse is found in some versions of the Amarusataka.

masrnatvam; for Abhinava expressly remarks: tad eva māsrnyam ucyate, the masrnatā being, in his opinion, the effect of sandhi and the use of anuprāsa. Vāmana explains masrnatva as: yasmin sati bahūny api padānyekavad bhāsante: Abhinava echoes this and says: padānām ślistatā parasparam...sambaddha-bandhanatayā anekam eka-padam ira bhāti.14 Thus, Abhinava attempts to approximate the twoford definition of Slesa given by Bharata to the artha-and śabda-guna Ślesa defined respectively by Vāmana. Without holding that the approximation is in every respect justifiable, we may say that in the two definitions of Ślesa given by Bharata it is not impossible to distinguish with Abhinava two aspects of the Guna relating respectively to śabda and artha,—the one consisting essentially of a more smooth arrangement or coalescence of words, and the other emphasising the well-knit diction which makes a suitable meaning clear on the surface by a commingling of ideas.

Hemacandra (p. 196) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 191), however, take only one aspect of Bharata's treatment remarking: srabhāva-spaṣṭaṁ vicāragahaṇaṁ vacaḥ śliṣṭam iti bharataḥ. It is evident that while reproducing Bharata's views, they leave out, the idea of Vamana's śabda-guṇā which, Abhinavagupta thinks, is involved in the expressions śliṣṭatā and supratibaddha mentioned in Bharata's definition above. They represent Vāmana as rejecting Bharata's definition on the ground that the qualification vicāra-gahana is mere dexterity in the use of expression (so as to hint) at a recondite sense and so it is not an excellence of diction. 15

^{14.} This passage in the commentary is corrupt.

^{15.} vicāra-gahanam gabhīrā-tham abhidhānābhidheya-vyavahāravaidagdhīyam, na tu gumpha-dharmaḥ. gumphadharmā hi guṇāḥ. tasmān masṛṇatvam śleṣaḥ.....iti vāmanaḥ (()saṃketa, p. 191).

is for this reason, they hold, that Vāmana characterised Ślesa as masrņatva or smoothness. We may note that even Vāmana's definition was, according to Māṇikyacandra, rejected by Daṇḍin, as being unsatisfactory.

II. PRASĀDA. Of this excellence Bharata gives only one definition, but apparently it has reference both to \$abda and to artha. It consists of a clearness through which the sense, which is not directly stated, appears from the word used from the relation of the easily understood word and sense 8.

Abhinavagupta, however, regards Bharata's Prasāda as equivalent to Vāmana's artha-guṇa of the same name, for he remarks: so'rtho vaimalyāśrayo'pi vaimalyam upacārāt. The artha cannot itself be raimalya; the qualification is used in a metaphorical sense. This certainly corresponds to Vāmana's artha-guṇa

16. athānukto buhdair yatra śabdād arthah pratīyate | sukha-śabdārtha-samyogāt prasādah parikīrtyate | (XVI, 95, K. M. T.).

apyanukto budhair yatra sabdo'rtho vā pratīyate |
sukha-sabaārtha-sambodhāt prasādaḥ parikīrtyate |
(XVII, 99, Ch, T.)

- 17. We accept the reading sabdad arthah of the K. M. text instead of sabdo'rtho vā of the Ch. text, although the latter is supported by the explanation of Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra. Our reading appears to have been accepted by Abhinava.
- 18. We accept the emended reading sukha-sabdartha samyogāt (K. M. T.). The actual reading mukha for sukha is apparently a mislection, as Abhinavagupta's reading as well as the Ch. text, on this point, makes it clear. Abhinava explains: sukhayati na prayatnam apekṣate yaḥ śabdārthaḥ. Jocobi proposes to read mukhya and thinks that Bharata's prasāda corresponds to Daṇḍin's Samādhi; but this is hardly justifiable. See Sanekrit toetics, ii, p. 15, fn 31.

Prasāda, which has been defined as $artha-vaimaly\bar{a}m^{19}$. (iii, 2, 3).

Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra, however remark: vibhakta-vācya-vācaka-yogāt anuktayor api śabhārthayoḥ pratipattiḥ prasāda iti bharataḥ (Kāvyānuśāsana. com. p. 196), to which Māṇikyacandra further adds: prasiddhārtha-padatā iti bhāvaḥ, pada-pūrvikā tad-arthāvagatir iti śabdārthayor grahaṇam (°saṅketa, p. 190). In this connection Hemacandra cites, anonymously from the Kīcaka-vadha²o, the illustration

yasyāhur ati-gambhīra-jalada-pratimam galam l sa vah karotu nihsangam udayam prati mangalam l

Here, the qualifying words yasya jalada-pratima etc. are so well-known (prasiddhārtha-pada) that they at once makes it clear that Śiva is here meant. Hence he remarks: seyam viśeṣanādhūrā viśeṣyānām uktih, for here we have a mention of the viśeṣya Śiva by the very qualifying viśeṣana itself, vix. yasya jalada-pratima.

III. SAMATĀ or evenness, consisting of expressions which are not redundant or difficult to understand and which do not contain an excess of $c\bar{u}rna$ -padas²¹...... Vāmana explains $c\bar{u}rna$ -pada as $ad\bar{v}rgha$ -samāsa and anuddhata-pada (vrti) under i, 3, 24)—short compounds and soft vocables; while Bharata defines it as:

^{19.} Abhinava, as usual, approximates this definition also to Vāmana's sabda-guṇa Prasāda, remarking:—..... ata eva saithi-lyātmā sabda—guṇaḥ prasādaḥ, but our manuscript is so corrupt here that it is difficult to follow what arguments lead to this conclusion.

^{20.} Ed. S. K. De, i. 3.

^{21.} nāticūrņa-padair zuktā na ca vyarthābhidhāyibhiḥ ļ na durboahā taiś ca kṛtā samatrāt samatā matā ‖ (K.M.T.: XVI, 96)

anibaddha-pada-cchandas tathā cūniyatākṣaram t arthāpekṣākṣarasyūtam jñeyam cūrṇa-padam budhaiḥ t (XVIII, 51, K. M. T.)

which also emphasises a composition of short compounds and the use of letters depending on nothing but the sense.

Abhinava makes Bharata's Samatā equivalent to the śabda-guna Samatā of Vāmana, remarking: śabdānāin samatā.....dīraha-samāso'tyanta-samāsaś ca samatvāt tadviparyayena samatā upakrānta-mārgāvisamatā. parityāga-rūpetyuktam bhavati. This is an approximation to Vāmana's śabda-guna Samatā defined as mārgābheda (iii, 1, 11) and explained as yena margenopakramas tasyātyāgah. Then again, Abhinava seems to read durbodhanābhidhānaiśca in place of na durbodhā taiśca krtā of the K. M. text, and attempts to find in Bharata's Samatā the idea of Vāmana's artha-guna Samatā Commenting on vyarthābhidhāyibhih in Bharata's definition, he remarks: nisprayojanam artham ye' bhidadhati sabdānām na tvetad vaimalyam iti prasādena nirastam etat. Therefore he proceeds to explain. referring to the next pada of the definitive verse: na hi sarvathā nisprayojanatā, api tu sad api prayojanuin durbodham, tad āha durbodha (nābhidhā) nair218 iti After this he goes on to say: abhidhīyate asmai ityabhidhānam prayojanam.. In this connection. Abhinava cites the verse cyuta-sumanasah kundāh

²¹ a. It appears that the scribe has left out three letters, namely, $n\bar{a}$, bhi and $dh\bar{a}$ from the actual reading of Abhinava here. Judging from the pratika of words commented upon there is left no room for doubt that the original text had the two words durbodhana and abhidhāna. The only possible combination of these two words gives the reading durbodhanābhidhānaih which is to be connected with padaih in the first foot of the verse.

puspodaamesvalasā drumā malayamarutah sarpantīme etc. quoted by Vāmana (vrtti under iii, 2, 5) with the comment that here (in the second foot) there is some amount of vaisamua as involved in makramabheda. This verse is a description of rtu-sandhi, and as such the mention of malaya-marut, which belongs peculiarly to the spring, is out of harmony in the context. Yet its mention is not absolutely redundant since it helps to awaken vipralambha śringāra. Abhinava goes on remarking: kintu prakaranam sphutam na puṣṇātīti viṣamatā. This (particularly the word sphuṭam) explains the term durbodhanaih or durbodhaih in The prakrama-bheda here can be Bharata's definition. avoided, as Vāmana himself shows, if we replace the second foot of the verse by manasi ca girain badhnantime kiranti na kokilāh and then the verse would be instance of avaişamya or Samatā as an artha-guņa.

Hemacandra (p. 197) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 192), however, read: parasparavibhūṣaṇo guṇālamkāragrāmaḥ samam iti bharataḥ, which corresponds to Bharata's definition of Samatā as found in the Ch. text². They indicate that Daṇḍin rejects this definition on the ground that Guṇas and Alamkāras, which are themselves bhinnādhikaraṇa, cannot adorn each other². This is certainly not the view of Daṇḍin, but the commentators

²² anyo'nya-sady'sam yatra tathā hyanyo'nya-bhūşanam | alamkāra-gunā's caiva samāsāt samatā yathā | (XVII, 100) Samāsāt is to be preferred to the reading samatvāt of the K. M. text.

Obviously the reading $yath\bar{a}$ is a mislection here. It should be $mat\bar{a}$ as in the K. M. text. A definition ending in $yath\bar{a}$ is always followed by an illustration of it.

^{23.} bhinnādhārā guṇālamkārāḥ katham anyoʻnyam bhūşayeyur iti dandī. śleṣa-yamaka-citrāni bhūryanuprāsāśca prastuta-guṇānvigrhṇanti. tasmād bandheṣvaviṣamam samam (°samketa, p. 192).

read their own view here in accepting the Alamkāras as related to the $k\bar{a}vya-\hat{s}ar\bar{\imath}ra$ and the Guṇas to $k\bar{a}vy\bar{a}tman$. In Daṇḍin's work, however, these entities are not bhinnādhāra, since they both adorn the $k\bar{a}vya-\hat{s}ar\bar{\imath}ra$.

IV. SAMADHI consists in the presence of that peculiar or distinguishing embellishment of sense which is understood by men of critical discernment²*. Abhinavain this connection: vasuārthasva gupta remarks abhiyuktaih pratibhānātisayayadbhir viśeso'pūrvah svollikhita upalabhyate sa samāhita-manah-sampādyavišesatvād artho višistah samādhih. This explanation closely follows Vāmana's vrtti: samādhi-kāranatvāt samādhih (iii, 2, 6) in connection with the definition of Samādhi as an artha-auna. In the fourth foot of Bharata's verse on Samādhi, Abhinava reads parikīrtitah and not parikīrtyate. He remarks samādhi-sabdasya yo'rthah parihāra-laksanas tena yah parikīrtitah paritah samantād ākrāntyā uccārane (?) sampannah sa ca samādhih, ākrantyoccārane ārohāvarohakrama eva. explanation ārohāvaroha-krama, depending on uccārana, is meant to make the definition correspond to Vāmana's Śabdaguna samādhi defined as ārohāvarohakramah (III, i, 13).

Hemacandra (p. 197) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 191) explain Bharata's definition of this Guṇa simply as: arthasya guṇāntara-samādhānāt samādhiḥ: but the texts of the Nāṭya-śāstra which we at present possess do not lend support to this definition 25. Of course it is somehow

^{24.} abhiyuktair visesas tu yo'rthasyaivopalabhyate | tena cārthena sampannaḥ samādhiḥ parikīrtyate | (XVI, 97. K. M. T.)

^{25.} Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra's explanation speaks of superimposition (samādhāna) of some special or distinguishing quality on the sense, and really corresponds to Daṇḍin's Samādhi,

possible to arrive at this position from the definition of Samādhi given in the K. M. text, because the apprehension of the charms of metaphorical expressions is possible only for intelligent people. But this is far-fetched and it cannot be taken in any way as the direct summarisation of any of the definitions found in the printed texts. Hemacandra and Māṇikycandra think that Vāmana does not accept the definition of Bharata as referred to by them, since it is nothing but a special case of Atiśayokti (so'yam atiśayokti-viśeṣaḥ. tasmād ārohāvarohakramaḥ samādhir iti vāmanaḥ— saniketa, p. 192)

V. MĀDHURYA consists of sweetness, where a sentence heard many times or repeated again and again does not produce weariness or disgust.²⁶ The text of Abhinava's commentary on this passage is corrupt in

which consists of the transference of the qualities or actions of one thing to another, that is, metaphorical expression generally. Dr. S. K. De (Sanskrit Poetics Vol. II, p. 16) was apparently relying on the commentaries of Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra when he took Bharata's Samādhi to be "superimposition of something special or distinguishing in the sense". The Ch. text reads the definition as:

upamāsviyahistānām (?) arthānām yatnatas tathā | prāptānām cāti-samyogah samādhih parikīrtyate | (XVII, 101)

which is certainly a corrupt text and does not give us any solution here. Should we understand that the expression atisamyoga here implies superimposition? And does the first foot read upamāsviva hīṣṭānām? In that case Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra's definition may somehow be deduced from the one in Ch. text.

26. bahuśo yat kṛtam kāvyam uktam vā'pi punaḥ punaḥ p nodvejayati tasmāddhi tan mādhuryam udāhṛtam || (XVI, 98. K. M. T.)

bahuso yacchrutam vākyam uktam vā'pi punaḥ punaḥ | nodvejayati yasmāddhi tan mādhuryam iti smrtam ||

(XVII, 102, Ch. T.)

many places, but it is clear that he reads srutam for krtam and vākyam for kāvyam of the K.M. text. This reading is supported by the Ch. text, as well as by the remarks of Hemacandra and Mānikyacandra on this point. It is clear that Abhinavagupta here, as elsewhere, reads the views of Vamana into Bharata and presents Mādhurya from two views-points, viz, as a śabda-guna and as an artha-guna. He remarks: yad yasmāddhetor vākyain śrutain sainśaya-viparyayayor (?) āspadam na bhavati tan mādhuryam drāghīyasi samāse tau (=sainśaya-viparyayau) avaśyain bhavata iti tadviraha eva mādhuryam sabda-gunah. This is undoubtedly an elucidation of Vāmana's prthak-padatva (iii, 1, 20) which has been explained in the vrtti as samāsadairghya-nivrtti. In Abhinava's opinion, Bharata's Mādhurya is also an artha-guna consisting of uktivaicitrya, as defined by Vāmana. Thus: punah punar apy uktam arthajātam yad yasmāddhetor.....avagāhanena vairasyena (?)...tad vacana-vaicitryātmakain mādhuryam artha-gunah.....vacanāntarābhidheyatayā hi sa evārtho vicitro bhavati.27

Hemacandra (p. 198) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 189) think that the definition given by Bharata is too wide, for it would include even the harsh utterances of a beloved person which do not produce disgust. It is for this, in their opinion, that Vāmana defines the śabda-guṇa as pṛthak-padatva, which too has been later on discarded as too narrow a definition.² S

^{27.} The text of the commentary is extremely corrupt and incorrect here. Perhaps Abhinava meant to explain it thus....... yasmāddhetor avagāhanena vairasyena na yojayati.

^{28.} bahudhā srutam api yad anudvejakam vacas tanmadhuram iti bharatoktam tu lakṣaṇam priya-jana-rūkṣākṣarākṣepa-vacane pi tulyatvād ativyāpakam. pṛthakpadatvam tu mādhuryam vāmanoktam avyāpakam. ṣamāse pi mādhuryasya dṛṣṭeḥ.

VI. OJAS: (i) Strength, where the composition is characterised by the use of varied, striking and dignified compound words, having letters agreeable to one another. ²⁹ (K. M. T). (ii) This excellence occurs where there is richness of word and its sense and where a low or censured object becomes an object of exaltation. ³⁰ (Ch. T).

Abhinava accepts the first definition, reading śānurāgaih for the obviously corrupt sā tu svaraih of the K.M. text, and explaining sānurāga as yatra varnair varnāntaram apekṣyate tatra sānurāgatvam. He takes the example quoted by Vāmana (under iii, 1, 5) to illustrate Ojas as a *śabda-guna* (vilulitamakarandā mañjarīr nartavanti) and remarks in this connection: atra ra iti šabdo nda šabdam sva-gurutvāyāpeksate...etad eva gādhatvam ucuate. But if the reading is altered to vilulitamadhudhārā manjarīr lolayanti, it would be no instance of gādhabandhatva, since the letters dhā and lo are by themselves guru; hence they are jātyapekṣa or dependent on themselves, and unlike the letters ra and na in the former reading they have no sānurāgatva or Ojas. Abhinava further remarks: nibidāvayavatayaiva samāsena samksepena yuktāni padāni yatrārtha-bhūyān (?) iti sainksepo nāmārtha-guna ojah.....ekam api vastu udārair bahubhih padair upanibadhyate vistārātmakam apyojo'rtha-gunah.

(XVI, 99).

(XVII, 103).

The first line is probably currupt. From the remarks of Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra (though Māṇikyacandra's text itself is a bit currupt here) the reading would apparently be avagīto' pi hīno'pi.

^{29.} samāsavadbhir vividhair vicitrais ca padair yutam | sā tu svarair udārais ca tad ojah parikīrtyate ||

^{30.} avagītāvihīno 'pi syād udāttāvabhāvakaḥ | yatra \$abdārtha-sampattis tad ojaḥ parikīrtitam ||

This explanation of the terms samāsa and vistāra is certainly after Vāmana's remark in connection with the artha-guṇa Ojas defined as arthasya praudhiḥ (iii, 2, 2) and it agrees with the memorial verse which Vāmana quotes:—

padārthe vākya-racanam vākyārthe ca padābhidhā _|
praudhir vyāsa-samāsau ca sābhiprāyatvam asya tu ||
(vṛtti under iii, 2, 2)

Hemacandra and Mānikyacandra accept the definition of Bharata's Oias found in the Ch. text. Hemacandra paraphrases the verse thus: avaaītasva hīnasva vā vastunah sabdārtha-sampadā yad udāttatvain nisincanti kavayas tad oja iti bharatah (pp. 194-95), In other words. this excellence consists in imparting loftiness to an object which is low or treated with contempt; that is, glorification of the inglorious. They criticise it remarking that this cannot be a special excellence, since even the depreciation of a noble object may equally constitute a case of Ojas, and Mānikyacandra distinctly remarks: ahīnānavagītasyāpakarsanenaujaso'pi gunasya prāpteh. In this connexion Hemacandra refers³¹ to the view of Mangala, who is reported to have criticised Bharata's Ojas to the same effect. He also remarks 22, under the name of Dandin, that poets have got three sorts of liberty in their treatment of a subject. Sometimes they extol an insignificant object, sometimes they depreciate an

^{31.} anavagatasya (= °gītasya) ahīnasya vā vastunaḥ sabdārthayor arthasampadā yad anudāttatvam niṣiñcanti kavayas tarhi tad anojaḥ syād iti mangalaḥ (Kāvyānusāsana. com. p. 195),

^{32.} kavīnām abhidheyam prati trayaḥ panthānaḥ, ete nyūnam utkarṣanti, adhikam apakarṣanti, yathārtham vastu khyāpayanti. tat katham ivāyam guṇa iti daṇḍī, tusmāt samāsabhūyastvam ojaḥ. (ibid)

elevated character, and in other cases they see the thing as it is (with the poets' eye) and describe its true nature. Hence, he says, such a characteristic would not constitute a special Guṇa in Daṇḍin's opinion.

VII. SAUKUMĀRYA consists of an agreeable sense which results from agreeably employed words and from well-connected euphonic combinations^{3,3}. Abhinava, as usual, equates this with Vāmana's Saukumārya, both as a śabda-guṇa and as an artha-guṇa. The phrase sukha-prayojya śabda brings in the idea of Daṇḍin's aniṣṭhurākṣara-prāyatā (i, 69) and of Vāmana's ajara-thatra (iii, 1, 21). Again, the apāruṣya (iii, 2, 11) of Vāmana, which consists chiefly of the avoidance of disagreeable or inauspicious statements, is said to be implied in Bharata's sukumārārtha or agreeable sense.

Māṇikyacandra (p. 193) and Hemacandra (p. 198) still see a difference between the characteristics of this Guṇa as set forth by Bharata and Vāmana, for they remark: sukha-śabdārthaṁ sukumāram iti bharataḥ, sukha-śabdam eva iti tu vāmanaḥ. It is needless to add that they have not correctly presented the views of Vāmana, each of whose Guṇas clearly possesses a two-fold character.

VIII. ARTHAVYAKTI. Explicitness, (i) in which the meaning is apprehended as soon as the word is

(Ch. T. XVII, 104).

This reading is accepted by Abhinavagupta. The K. M. text reads (XVI, 100) mukhya-prayojyair yacchandaih (?) or mukhya-prayojyais chandobhih as a more correct alternative reading in the footnote.

^{33.} sukha-prayojyair yac chabdair yuktam su-slista-sandhibhih | sukumārārtha-samyuktam saukumāryam tad ucyate ||

employed^{3 4}; (ii) which describes the nature of things as they appear in the world by means of well-known predicates 35. It is clear that the first of these definitions corresponds to Vāmana's śabda-guna Arthavyakti (III, 1, 23) which is explained by him as jhatityarthapratipatti-hetutva, while the second would approximate to his artha-guna of the same name (iii, 2, 13) which has been defined as vastu-svabhāva-sphutatva. The K. M. text here is obviously corrupt. Abhinava reads: suprasiddhābhidhāyinā^{35a} in place of suprasiddhā dhātunā tu, which latter is unintelligible. This phrase he explains as suprasiddham abhidhānam abhidhā-vuānāro yasyām kāvya-kriyāyām sā arthavyaktih sabda-gunah. In his opinion, this excellence occurs where the expressed sense. containing well-known and well-understood predicates, prevails, and therefore it is a sabda-guna. Abhinava considers it also as an artha-guna; but his remarks in this connection are not sufficiently clear. The verse prsthesu śankha-śakala-cchavisu cchadānām etc., which he cites as an illustration, is taken from Vāmana where it is given as an example of vastu-svabhāvasphutatva, i. e. of his artha-guna Arthavyakti.

34. yasyārthānupravešena manasā parikalpyate | anantaram prayogasya sā'rthavyaktir udāhṛtā || (XVII, 105, Ch. T).

The text is defective as the verse is wanting in the object of the verb parikalpyate. Should we read the first foot as yasyārtho' nupraveśena? It then gives some sense.

35. suprasiddhā dhātunā tu (?) loka-karma-vyavasthitā l yā kriyā kriyate kāvye sā'rthavyaktir udāḥrtā l

(XVI, 101, K. M. T.).

Should not loka-karma be loka-dharma?

35a. Abhinava's reading is metrically defective. Could it be read as suprasiddhābhidhānā tu?

Hemacandra (p. 199) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 192), however, attribute quite a different definition to Bharata, remarking: yasminn a-tathā-sthito'pi tathā-sthita evār-thaḥ pratibhāti so'rthavyaktir guṇa iti bharataḥ. ^{3 5 b} They consider that this Guṇa is only a special aspect of Bharata's Prasāda and that Vāmana's school rejected the above definition for that reason.

IX. UDĀRA or UDĀTTA. (i) An exaltedness which is marked by superhuman and other varied feelings and by the erotic (\$\(\sigma\)rigāra\) and the marvellous (\$adbhuta.\)\)^3 (ii) An excellence which characterises a composition by the presence of diversified or charming sense (eitrārthaih) and of well-spoken words (\$\sigma\)tatik(taih), which have more than one particular sense and which are marked by elegance (\$\(sau\)sthava-sainyutaih\).\)37

Abhinavagupta, who accepts the first definition, explains the excellence thus: yatra mānuṣocitam api divyatayā, akarunādi-yiktam api śṛṅgāreṇa, avismaya-sthānam apy adbhutena yuktain varṇyate tad-gatair vā vibhāvānubhāvādibhih, tad udāram, tatra audāryam

³⁵b. Prof. S. P. Bhattacharyya kindly suggested to me that the definition of Arthavyakti attributed to Bharata by Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra comes directly from the definition given in the Ch. text if anantaram in the third foot of that text (fn. 34) is read as arthāntaram. The definition in the Ch. text would then mean:—"Arthavyakti consists in the positing of a sense different from that actually attaching to the words thereof through a fancied mental (as opposed to verbal) function."

^{36.} divya-bhāva-parītam yacchrngārādbhuta-yojitam | aneka-bhāva-samyuktam udāram tat prakīrtitam | (XVI, 102, K. M. T.)

^{37.} anekārtha-višeṣair yat sūktaiḥ sauṣṭhava-saṅŋyutaiḥ |
upetam ati-citrārthaiḥ udāttain tac ca kīrtyate |
(XVII, 106, Ch. T.)

artha-gunah. In other words, the excellence consists in describing what is not divine as divine, what is not marvellous as marvellous, what is hardly tender as full of erotic sentiment, either by the delineation of these sentiments of the erotic and the marvellous or by the vibhavas and anubhāvas thereof. This, he goes on to say, has been called agrāmyatva by others (etad eva cāgrāmyatvam anyair uktam) and explains agrāmyatva as follows: grāmyain hi vastu yathāsthitam ayojitaracanā-višesam prasiddhi-mātra-pramānam ucuate, tato' nyad aqrāmyam. In his opinion, therefore, this aspect of Udāra corresponds to Vāmana's artha-guna Udāratā, which the latter defines as agrāmyatva (iii, 2, 12). Abhinava means, perhaps, as his citation of Vamana's illustration on this point shews, that what is grāmya or vulgar must not be entertained in poetry. The illustrative verse from Vāmana (vrtti under iii, 2, 12.) tvam evamsaundaryā sa ca ruciratāyām paricitah etc. is free from vulgar effects, which have been removed by a careful depiction of suitable feelings and sentiments in a dignified manner. It is interesting to note, however, that the reference to feelings and sentiments in this Guna of Bharata approximates it partly to Vāmana's artha-quna Kānti. "The implication of adbhuta rasa." as Dr. De points out 38 "and the characteristic that it deals with divya-bhāva indicate probably certain utkarsavān dharma, causing wonder, such as Dandin's Udāra * would contain." The use of the expression aneka-bhāvasamuukta leads Abhinava further, by a great deal of forced interpretation, to read the idea of Vāmana's śabda-guna Udarata (vikatatva—iii, 1, 22) into Bharata's definition, remarking: tatra hi tulya-jāta-śrnaa-linaādi-

^{38.} Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II, p. 18. (fn. 38).

^{39.} Kāvyādarśa, i, 76-77.

bhedena itthambhūto nartakī-sanniveśah, bharate tad uktam vikaṭatvam narīnṛtyamānatvam iti.

Hemacandra (p. 199) Māṇikyacandra (p. 192) remark with reference to Bharata's Udāra: bahubhih sākṣmaiś ca viśeṣaiḥ sametam udāram iti bharataḥ, which is somewhat akin to the second Udāra of Daṇḍin as well as to the definition given above from the Ch. text, with the difference that they apparently read sākṣmaiḥ for sākṭaiḥ of the printed (Ch.) text. They think that Vāmana's school rejects this definition of Bharata on the ground that it does not constitute a special Guṇa; it is only an ullekhavān arthaḥ or a meaning of a descriptive or allusive nature. (ullekhavān ayam arthaḥ kathain guṇa it vāmanīyāḥ—(Kāvyānuśāsana. com. p. 199).

X. KĀNTI or loveliness which delights the mind and the ear, or which is realised by the meaning conveyed by graceful gestures^{*0} ($l\bar{\imath}l\bar{u}di$).

Abhinava apparently accepts this reading of the K. M. text and explains $l\bar{\iota}l\bar{u}di$ as $l\bar{\iota}l\bar{u}di$ -ceṣṭ \bar{u} : but the reading in the Ch. text^{*1} is somewhat different. According to this latter text, the Guṇa Kānti would consist of a composition of words (\$\frac{\partial}{a}bda-bandha\$) which, by its special device (prayogena), appeals to the mind and the ear and causes calmness or limpidity (prasāda-janaka). Abhinavagupta thinks that the delight is the outcome of the conspicuous presence of Rasas like the erotic, and as such Bharata's

The reading sabda-bandho in the printed text is evidently incorrect since it shows a faulty sandhi.

^{40.} yan manaḥ-śrotra-viṣayam āhlādayati hīnduvat |
iīlādyarthopapannām vā tām kāntim kavayo viduḥ ||
(XVI, 103, K. M. T.)

^{41.} yo manassrotra-visayah prasāda-janako bhavet | sabda-bandhah prayogeņa sa kānta iti bhanyate | (XVII, 107, Ch. T.).

definition corresponds to that of Vāmana's artha-guṇa Kānti, which is defined as dīptarasatvam (iii, 2, 14). Abhinava too clearly remarks—dīptatram iti yāvat. Abhinava, moreover, thinks that this Guṇa also corresponds to Vāmana's śabda-guṇa Kānti, which is defined as brilliancy or aujjvalya (iii, 1, 25) without which a composition would be merely reproductive and stale (yadabhāve purāṇa-cchāyetyueyate - vṛtti on the above).

Hemacandra (p. 200) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 193) think that Vāmana does not accept the definition given by Bharata because the Guṇa Mādhurya too has been defined as pleasing the ear and the mind. Hence, in their opinion, Vāmana defines Kānti differently. ¹²

It will be seen from this enumeration of Bharata's Guṇas, both by themselves and with reference to the interpretation of later writers, that in spite of the attempts made by Abhinavagupta and others, a great deal of obscurity still remains, and it is difficult to understand what Bharata sometimes means exactly by a particular Guṇa. The conception is often not very definite, and individual Guṇas are not kept strictly apart from one another or saved from overlapping. Nor is his enumeration exhaustive and his distinctions convincing. It would be perhaps too much to expect such strictly accurate theoretical definition and classification in an early writer like Bharata. On such definitions and classifications even later writers have not always been clear and consistent, and wide divergence of opinion

^{42.} ŝrotramanaḥ-prītikṛt kāntam iti bharataḥ. mādhuryam evedam. tasmād aujjvalyam kāntir iti vāmanaḥ (Osamketa, p. 193)

^{43.} The obscurity is partly due to the uncertain nature of the text and partly to the inchoate conceptions natural to an early theoriser on the subject.

has prevailed over the question in the history of Sanskrit noetics. One need not be surprised, therefore, that Bharata's Gunas, even if they agree in nomenclature and sometimes in substance, do not really correspond to those of his immediate successors. Nevertheless, with the exception of Bhāmaha, the scheme of ten Gunas, outlined by Bharata, is conventionally adhered to by all later writers, until we come to the Dhyani school: and in some cases even the conception of his Guna is substantially accepted. For instance, Bharata's definition of Slesa in the two verses may be said to be present in some form or other in the twofold character of Vamana's Guna of the same name. The fundamental principle involved in his Prasada Guna appears to be a permanent contribution of Bharata to the later theory of poetics. The exuberance of compound words which constitutes an important aspect of Bharata's Ojas has not only been substantially accepted by the pre-dhyani writers like Bhāmaha and Dandin but also figures prominently in the ojogumpha of post-dhyani writers like Mammata (K. p. śutra 100. p. 485) and Viśvanātha (Sāhitya-darpaņa, Kar. 610, ch. VIII, p. 514). And lastly, it may be safely assumed that the principal character of Bharata's Saukumārva appear in Dandin and Vāmana in a modified but developed form.

It would also be clear from the above detailed consideration of Bharata's Gunas that Abhinava attempts throughout to approximate Bharata's Gunas to those of Vāmana, and consequently splits up each of Bharata's Gunas into a śabda-guna and an artha-guna. To attain this specific end, his interpretation naturally becomes strained and far-fetched in more than one place. Whenever he thinks it difficult to make out the point he wants to emphasise from Bharata's text, he unhesitatingly modifies or interprets the reading of the text so as to

get his point somehow established. As illustrations of Bharata's Guṇas Abhinava selects exactly the same verses as are given by Vāmana for the same purpose, and explains them in the light of Vāmana's definitions and interpretation. Judging from such cases, it would be evident that Abhinava's peculiar treatment of Bharata's Guṇas would not very materially help the critical reader in the way of comprehending the original views of Bharata himself.

Although it is not possible to accept Abhinava's system of splitting up each of Bharata's Gunas into a śabda-guna and an artha-guna, corresponding to those of Vāmana, it would not be wrong to hold that Vāmana might have received the hint of his twofold classification of the Gunas from Bharata's treatment. While Bharata's texts, as we have it now, would not allow us to infer that the division of the Gunas into śabda-guna and artha-guna was noteworthy, yet the dual concept was not entirely unknown to him as is evident from his unambiguous treatment of particular Gunas. Taking his definitions as they stand in both the editions of his text mainly used by us, it would seem that most of Bharata's Gunas are of the nature of what Vāmana would call artha-guna, while some of them can be well interpreted as comprehendaspects of śabda-guna as well. Thus, some of his Gunas refer to śabda, some to artha. while others to both these factors. If we depend upon the Kāyva-mālā text, Bharata's Ślesa, Samatā and Sukumāratā seem to possess a twofold function on the very face of the definitions given, and cannot in any way be mistaken. This could not have been lost on Vāmana. who perhaps developed the ideas further, probably in accordance with a tradition obtaining in his Riti school and divided systematically each of his Gunas into that of

sabda and artha respectively. As a result of such an elaborate procedure, he had to give a thoroughly new shape to all the Guṇas of Bharata, which, though outwardly the same in name and number, received new and different connotations at his hand and are in reality doubled in number.

With this assumption and restriction there would be no difficulty in accepting generally the view represented by Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra that the successors of Bharata established their own definitions by scrutinizing and improving upon Bharata's conception of the Guṇas, but treating them in connection with the later theory of Rīti, of which there is no trace in Bharata's work. At the same time, we must not be led away by every detail of the views represented by Māṇikyacandra and Hemacandra, for these are often extremely coloured by the ideas of the post-dhvani period; and some of the opinions that they pass under Bharata's name in their works are not to be found in the texts of Bharata which we now possess.

CHAPTER IV

BHĀMAHA'S TREATMENT OF RĪTI AND GUNA

Bhāmaha is the earliest-known writer on Poetics proper whose work has come down to us. The activities of the Poetic theorists during the period which intervened between Bharata and Bhāmaha are unfortunately hidden from us. No definite information is available about the writers and their works during this period, but from stray references in the earliest extant literature it can be inferred that the period saw the growth of Sanskrit Poetics as an independent technical discipline. To Bhāmaha belongs the credit of bringing to a definite focus the tentative speculations of a period of the Sastra of which we know nothing. We have that Bharata belonged to the Rasa school of Dramaturgy and his treatment of the elements Guna, was only incidental, occupying a Alamkāra, etc. very insignificant portion of his huge work. Bhamaha, on the other hand, who was an avowed exponent of the Alamkara system, devoted the whole of his work to a comparatively systematic elaboration of Poetic embellishments which themselves formed the principal object of his study as could be expected from the very name of the work-Kāvvālamkāra.

^{1.} e. g. Bhāmaha's reference to a discussion about the comparative merits of the Gauda and Vaidarbha Kāvyas to which we shall presently turn and also to some previous writers and works—Medhāvin (ii, 40) and others (i, 33; ii, 19; ii, 45; ii 47; ii, 58; iii, 8, iii, 10).

He does not appear to attach much importance to the elements Guṇa and Rīti. To him the Alamkāras under the general name Vakrokti (a striking mode of speech) constitute the essence of poetry. He nowhere uses the term guṇa in his work except in connection with the poetic figure Bhāvika (ed. Trivedi, iii, 52) which, as in the Kāvyādarśa of Daṇḍin (ii, 363-65), has been described as prabandha-viṣayaṁ guṇam, where the term guṇa does not seem to be restricted to the technical poetic excellence that we are dealing with but refers in a wider sense, to poetic beauty in general.²

In the beginning of the second chapter of his Kāvyālamkāra. Bhāmaha enumerates three entities viz., Mādhurya, Ojas and Prasāda, which are the names assigned to some of the Gunas of Bharata and of other pre-dhvani writers and which constitute the only three Gunas accepted by the Dhyani and post-dhyani theorists. But unlike Dandin, Vāmana and others, Bhāmaha does not treat them in connection with what we call Ritis (called by him Kāvyas), such as Gaudīya and Vaidarbha.1 Thus, he does not think that particular Gunas constitute the characteristics of particular classes of kāvyas (namely Gauda and Vaidarbha) but holds that these three entities should be present in good $k\bar{a}vya$ generally. So his Gunas are absolute entities bearing no relation to any other poetic element.

So far as his conception of the Rītis is concerned, he does not appear to entertain any theoretic distinction between the one type and the other. He refers to the views of some earlier theorists, unknown to us, who meant to imply some distinction of manner and treatment

^{2.} The question has been fully dealt with in S. K. De's article on 'Bhāmaha's views on Guṇa' in the Pathak Commemoration Volume (pp. 353—358).

between the Gaudiya and Vaidarbha kāvyas but his remarks make it clear that he himself does not place much importance upon those alleged differences 3a. In brief, the Gaudiya and Vaidarbha classes of poetry as such are considered by him to be neither superior nor inferior to each other. The most important factor in terms of which he is inclined to judge poetic beauty is a striking mode of speech together with a cleverness of ideas* which forms the character of his Vakrokti, the fundamental principle of all Alamkaras in his theory of poetry. And if that is existing in the Gaudiya poetry, he has no objection to accept it in preference to the Vaidarbha. In his opinion, that type of Vaidarbha, which although clear (prasannam), smooth (rju) and soft (komalam), is neither rich in ideas (apustārtham) nor possessed of Vakrokti (avakrokti), does not deserve any high amount of estimation simply on account of its being agreeable to

vaidarbham anyad astīti manyante sudhiyo'pare |
tad eva ca kila jyāyaḥ sadartham api nāparam |
(Kāvyālamkāra, i, 31).

3a. gaudīyam idam etat tu vaidarbham iti kim pṛthak | gatānugatika-nyāyān nānākhyeyam amedhasām ||

ibid, i, 32.

^{3.} For instance, he mentions a class of wise men who used to regard the Vaidarbha kind of poetry as being superior to the other (implying of course the Gaudiya kind) even though the latter might have an elegance of meaning. He says:

^{4.} vakrābhidheya-śabdoktir iṣṭā vācām alamkṛtiḥ! ibid, i, 36c-d. We shall explain on (in ch. VII, B) the full import and application of Vakrokti as implied by Bhāmaha and Kuntaka. Here we shall just remember that Vakrokti which literally means 'crooked speech' consists of some peculiar and charming way of expression deviated from a matter-of-fact speech. Abhinavagupta too explains the above couplet thus: śabdasya hi vakratā abhidheyasya ca vakratā lokottīrņena rūpeņāvasthānam (°locana, p. 208, 10).

the ear (kevalam śruti-peśalam). On the other hand, even the Gaudīya (which Bhāmaha's predecessors presumably seemed to disparage) is regarded by him as the better class of poetry if it is endowed with Alamkāra (alamkāravat), is free from vulgarity and inconsistency (agrāmyam, anākulam) and possesses proper and mature ideas (nyāyyam, arthyam). In fact, these constitute, according to Bhāmaha, the characteristics of good poetry and if the Gaudīya contains them there is no need of reckoning Vaidarbha as a separate class of composition.

Bhāmaha's remarks in connection with the Guṇas are very cautious because he presents the views on the (so-called) Guṇas of previous writers but scrupulously refrains from giving his own in the matter. He says that there are some who want to apply long compounds in Ojas (as in Daṇḍin i, 80) whereas those who wish to achieve Mādhurya (sweetness) and Prasāda (lucidity) do not use many compound words. The Prasāda appears to be equivalent to Bharata's Guṇa of the same name inasmuch as the sentence conveying the same should be,

5. apuṣṭārtham avakrokti prasannam rju komalam |
bhinnam jñeyam ivedam tu kevalam śruti-peśalam ||
alamkāravad agrāmyam arthyam nyāyyam anākulam |
gaudīyam api sādhīyo vaidarbham iti nānyathā ||
Kāvyālamkāra, i, 34-35.

We accept the reading *Meyam* in place of *geyam* (in the third pāda of the first verse) as suggested by S. P. Bhattacharyya in his article on 'The Gaudi Rīti in Theory and Practice' in I. H. Q., June, 1927, p. 378.

6. mādhuryam abhivānchantah prasādam ca sumedhasah | samāsavanti bhūyāmsi na padāni prayunjate || Kāvyālamkāra, ii, 1.

keçid ojo'bhidhitsantah samasyanti bahunyapi l

according to Bhāmaha, clear to all, even to women and children. His description of Mādhurya (or more strictly madhura kāvya) which should be pleasing to the ear and free from long compounds⁷, has been rejected by Ānandavardhana and Abhinavagupta on the ground that this definition is not applicable to Mādhurya exclusively since even in Ojas there is nothing to prevent the composition from being agreeable to the reader and being marked by an absence of compound words⁸.

We cannot lose sight of one important fact that Bhāmaha's brief treatment of the Gunas precedes in context the Alamkāras or poetic figures and this perhaps goes to imply that to Bhāmaha these two elements are contiguous to each other and co-extensive. In other words, Gunas are specific kinds of Alainkāras and consequently there is no criterion for distinguishing the one element from the other. The Gunas', remarks S. P. Bhattacharvya, "are appreciated inasmuch as they form a plank of the alamkāras" and as such they do not "form the veritable crucial test of poetry" as they have done, being the essential constituents of the allimportant Riti, in the works of the propounders of the Riti school. Bhāmaha, belonging as he did to a different school of opinion, viz. the Alamkara school, hardly assigned any theoretic importance to the elements

^{7. \$}ravyam nāti-samastārtham kāvyam madhuram isyate | āvidvod-anganā-bāla-pratītārtham prasādavat |

ibid, ii, 3.

^{8.} śravyatvam punar ojaso'pi sādhāraņam iti (vṛtti on D. K. ii, 8) The olocana (p. 79. ll. 10-13) has on this: nanu 'śravyam nātisamasta-śabdārtham madhuram iṣyata' iti mādhuryasya lakṣaṇam netyāha—śravyatvam iti.....ojaso'pīti. 'yo yaḥ śāstram (Dhvanyāloka p. 81 under D. K. ii, 10)' ityatra hi śravyatvam asamastatvam cāstyeveti bhāvah.

^{9.} loc cit, p 379.

of Rīti and Guṇa. His casual and half-hearted treatment of these poetic elements, in spite of his notice of their earlier existence, left an extensive field for the Rīti theorists to work upon¹⁰.

10. It is true that in the treatment of all pre-dhyani theorists poetic beauty has been judged chiefly in terms of the technical elements Guna and Alamkara. At the same time it is interesting to note that even some of the Dosas mentioned by them serve, under special circumstances, to enhance the poetic effect instead of marring it. This particular aspect of Dosa was noticed first by Bhāmaha and his conception of it was only rudimentary as could be naturally expected. He remarks in connection with his Ekartha-dosa (IV, 14) that when the same word is repeated (e. g. paccha, gaccha = go away, go away) under the influence of fear, sorrow and jealousy (bhaya-śokābhyasūyāsu) as also of delight and wonder (harsa-vismayayor api), it is not said to constitute the Dosa punarukta (punaruktam na tad viduh) or, more strictly, Ekārtha. This is the only verse devoted by Bhāmaha to the treatment of the subject under discussion and even here he is not clear whether particular circumstances can make a Dosa fit to be treated as a positive source of poetic charm. But Bhāmaha's successors found herein a broad hint regarding the non-deterring character of Dosa and they carried the scheme further, each in his own way.

CHAPTER V

DAŅDIN'S CONCEPTION OF THE GUNAS AS RELATED TO THE MĀRGAS

By the time when Bhāmaha expounded his theory of Vakrokti as the basis of all Alamkāras, and probably even earlier than that, there appeared a class of writers who taught, directly or indirectly, the essential importance of Guṇas (as distinct from Alamkāras) not by themselves but as the constituent elements of Rītis, from which these writers came to be called the Rīti theorists. The Rītis were, perhaps, at first regarded as particular classes of composition prevalent in or practised by the people of particular localities from which they derived their individual names. Even in the later history of Sanskrit Poetics, when their nature and conception came to be modified at the hands of novel theorists, they continued to bear the names given to them by the earlier masters.

Dandin is one of the earliest known writers who treat of the Gunas in connection with Rīti, although the term Rīti itself, standardised by Vāmana, is never employed by him. The professed object of his work¹ is to describe

^{1.} Our references throughout are to the edition of Rangā-cārya, with the commentary of Tarunavācaspati and the anonymous Hṛdayangamā commentary (Madras, 1910), unless otherwise indicated. The editions of Premchandra Tarkavāgiśa with his own commentary (Calcutta, Śaka 1803), and of Belvalkar and Reddi (with a new Sanskrit commentary and English notes) in the Bombay Sanskrit Series (1920), as well as Belvalkar's English translation (Poona 1924) have also been consulted. It is rarely that Böhtlingk's edition has been of use; its text follows generally that of the Calcutta edition.

what he calls 'the body of poetry and the embellishments thereof'. These embellishments consist of certain external modes of expressions and are covered by the general term Alainkāra (which is described as kāvya-sobhākara dharma.....ii, 1.a), applicable as much to the technical Guṇas that form the essence of his postulated "ways of speech" (girām mārgaḥ.....i, 40. a. which is equivalent to Rīti of other writers) as to the so-called Alainkāras or poetic figures. Whatever enhances poetic beauty (kāvya-sobhā) is its Alainkāra, and in this view Daṇḍin's position is not fundamentally different from that of Vāmana who explains the term Alainkāra broadly as beauty (saundarya...kāvyālainkārasūtra-vṛtti, i, 1, 2) in a non-technical sense.

In the first chapter of his work Dandin defines and classifles poetry and discusses at some length the special characteristics of the two extreme modes of composition³

2. taih sarīranca kāvyānām alamkārās ca darsitāh |

Kāvyādarsa, i, 10, a-b.

pūrva sāstrāņi samhrtya prayogān upalabhya ca |

yathū-sāmarthyam asmābhih kriyate kāvya-laksaņam ||

ibid, i, 2.

3. In i, 40, Daņdin tells us asty aneko girām mārgaḥ sūkṣmabhedaḥ parasparam | tatra vaidarbha-gauḍīyau varnyete prasphuṭāntarau ||

Dandin is apparently aware of the existence of diverse 'ways of speech'. He himself takes up only two of them which possess clearly distinctive characteristics and leaves out the rest because these latter have, in his opinion, very subtle points of distinction and as such they do not deserve any special consideration. It is difficult to say what particular theorist or school of opinion is being roferred to by Dandin here. J. Novel (Foundations of Indian Poetry. p. 100) surmises that this verse is pointed at Bhāmaha in whose opinion the Gaudiya and Vaidarbha classes of Poetry have ne distinctive features. But P. V. Kane (p. XXXV. Introduction to Sāhityadarpana) does not admit the very question

(Mārga), viz, the Vaidarbha and the Gauda, explaining the application or otherwise of the ten standard excellences or Gunas which form all the while the criteria for their distinction, and giving throughout a preferential treatment to the Vaidarbha. In the beginning of the second chapter, he first offers a general definition of Alamkara as embellishment per se, and then goes on to remark that in the previous chapter he has spoken of alamkriyāh in connection with the classification of the margas. The term alamkriyāh in this passage has thus a clear reference to the ten standard excellences which he has already dealt with as the essence of the Vaidarbha Mārga. Next, he says that he would now deal with the general* (sādhārana) Alamkāras, which term obviously refers to the poetic figures that he is proceeding to treat of in the chapter under discussion. Thus, the Gunas are generally laid down as pertaining to the excellent diction and therefore viśista alainkāras, while the so-called poetic figures or Alamkāras in the narrow sense are sādhāraņa, because both the Margas abound in such decorations as the upamā, rūpaka etc. Tarunavācaspati comments on this: śobhākaratvam hi alamkāra-laksanam, tallaksana-yogāt te'pi [=ślesādayo daśa gunā api] alamkārāh ...gunā alamkārā eva ity ācāryāh.

From this we are not to understand, with P. V. Kane, that "Dandin's work.....makes no distinction between

of the priority of Bhāmaha over Daṇḍin. It will, indeed, be a fruitless task for us to attempt at finding out what theorist is exactly referred to here. Our purpose will, however, be amply served if we take note only of the simple fact that the Rīti Theory had made a tradition of its own even before the time of Daṇḍin for this much and nothing more can be definitely said from the verse in question.

^{4.} kāścin mārga-vibhāgārtham uktāḥ prāgapy alamkriyāḥ | sādhāraṇam alamkāra-jātam anyat pradarsyate | ii, 3.

gunas and alamkāras" (Introduction to Sāhityadarpaṇa. p. CLII.) for while to Dandin every Guna is an Alainkāra, he nowhere suggests that every Alainkāra is a Guna. What is meant is not that the Gunas and the Alamkāras are identical, but that the embellishments like slesa, which are technically called Gunas, form the sine qua non of a diction par excellence, which cannot go without them; whereas the figures of speech or Alamkāras like *upamā*, are not the special characteristics of a specific diction but they may reside in all kinds of diction. From this, we may conclude that so far as a good composition is concerned Dandin makes the presence of Gunas (and not of poetic figures) its absolute condition. This is a position approximating that of Vāmana who, however, commits himself to the clear statement that Gunas constitute inseparable attributes of poetry,5 implying thereby that it can do without Alamkāras or poetic figures. Thus, when the technical excellence and the poetic figure are both termed alamkāra in a non-technical sense, and yet a technical distinction is implied between them as characteristics of a diction, we may well hold that Dandin, as S. K. De remarks,6 "practically fore-shadows, if he does not theoretically develop, the rigid differentiation of the guna and the alamkāra of the Rīti school".

We have seen that Dandin treats of the Gunas in connection with his Mārga, which is equivalent to Rīti, and not in relation to Rasa (as writers on Rasa and Dhvani theories do), the fundamental importance of which had not yet been recognised in the theory of poetry. Proceeding to describe the distinctive characteristics of the two extreme ways of speech (mārga or vartman), Dandin lays down:

^{5.} Kāvyālamkāra-sūtra-vrtti, iii, 1, 1-3.

^{6.} Sanskrit Poetics, II, p. 106.

ślesah prasādah samatā mādhuryam sukumāratā \
arthavyaktir udāratvam ojah-kānti-samādhayah \
iti vaidarbha-mārgasya prānā daśa guṇāh smṛtāh \
esāin viparyayah prāyo dṛśyate gauḍa-vartmani \

i, 41-42.

It will be well to recollect here that Dandin, like his predecessors, does not give a general definition of Guna. In the beginning of ch. IV of the Madras edition of Dandin's text, Guna has been characterised broadly in connection with Dosa by the statement that Dosas mar the poetic effect just as Gunas heighten it. In the two verses cited above Dandin mentions ten Gunas, which follow those of Bharata in their number and nomenclature but differ from them in their content. They are described as the very "life-breath" of the Vaidarbha Mārga. If we accept the term vaidarbhamārga to be an upalaksana, standing for a standard good diction, as S. P. Bhattacharyya has suggested,8 Dandin's position is that the excellences just mentioned are essential in any good composition. But the Gaudavartman often (prāyaḥ) presents a different aspect, the conception of the Gaudas about the essentials of a diction being apparently different from that of the Vaidarbhas. Some controversy exists over the meaning of the term viparyaya in this verse. Those who accept Tarunayacaspati's interpretation would take it to mean vaiparitya,

^{7.} doṣā vipaltaye teṣām guṇāḥ sampattaye yathā. iv, 1. c-d.

This verse is missing in the Calcutta (Premchandra) and Bombay (Reddi and Belvalkar) editions, as well as in the edition of Böhtlingk. It is also missing in the Tibetan version (J.R.A.S. 1903, p. 349). As this extra verse is found in the Madras edition only, it is better not to deduce any definite conclusion therefrom.

^{8.} The Gaudi Riti in Theory and Practice in I.H.Q., June, 1927, (p. 379. fn. 2).

i.e. opposition or contrariety, while others, following the Hṛdayangamā, mean by it anyathātva, i.e. difference or divergence. The ten fixed excellences, viz., Śleṣa etc., are said to constitute the essential characteristics of the Vaidarbha Mārga, but if it is asked what constitutes the essential characteristics of the Gauda Mārga, we cannot reasonably answer that the opposites of these excellences (which would really be Doṣas or faults) do it; i.e. if "eṣām" in i, 42 is taken to refer to the essentials (prāṇāḥ), then the term viparyaya should mean anyathātva instead of vaiparītya.

The point requires some explanation. If, in this case, viparyaya is interpreted to imply 'the reverse' or "the opposite", the fundamental characteristics of the Gauda Mārga are relegated to the position of something like Doṣas and would correspond to such Doṣas as are actually defined as Arītimat by Bhoja. We cannot,

q. Sarasvatī-kanthābharana (K. M. edition) p. 24. In the enumeration of this set of negative guna-viparyaya-dosas, besides technically defined positive Dosas, Bhoja was, perhaps, influenced by Vāmana's dictum guna-viparyayātmano doṣāh (ii, I, I) as well as by the treatment of Dandin's viparyayas. Bhoja's viparyayas mean certainly vaiparitya, since each of a set of nine out of twenty-four of his Gunas has, on principle, been shown to have a particular Dosa corresponding to it (pp. 24-30), and the Dosas which thus arise do not attach themselves to a particular Riti, so that by reason of these viparyayas the Gaudi Riti, or for the matter of that, any other Riti does not unnecessarily suffer from deficiency. Bhoja, on principle, invents a viparyaya of each of the ten Gunas (excepting Samādhi) of Vāmana or of Dandin. while Dandin names or characterises the viparyayas of only some of them, the other Gunas being common to both the Margas. Bhoja calls the viparyayas distinct Dosas, and as such they are not the characteristics of a particular Rîti, whereas Dandin's vibarvayas are sometimes the characteristics of the Gauda Marga. and he does not use the term Dosa in their connection, excepting

however, hold that the Gauda Mārga could have been defined as something essentially marked by the opposites of the excellences constituting the Vaidarbha Mārga, for these would be devoid of all charm and would hardly constitute a poetic diction. Dandin presents to us the type of the Gauda Mārga which is not, really speaking, devoid of charm, nor condemned outright. In spite of his decided partiality for the Vaidarbha and a mild aversion for the Gauda manner, we are not convinced that he meant to deprive the latter of the recognition that was its due. S. P. Bhattacharyya has already shewn that even long before the time of Dandin the Gaudi Rīti had, side by side with the widely accepted Vaidarbhī, an established tradition of its own, which Dandin himself could not ignore.

On the other hand, if *viparyaya* is taken to mean anyathātva, the utmost we can hold against the Gauda Mārga is that its standard of a poetical composition differs from that prevalent in the very widely recognised Vaidarbha: and that in their attempt to attain that standard the propounders of the Gauda diction did not mind if they sometimes deviated from the practice prevalent in the other mode¹¹.

The controversy about the exact meaning of *viparyaya* really raises some distinctions but the ultimate conclusion

once in i,69. Thus Bhoja's viparyayas are negative entities, being always the exact opposites of some correspondings Guṇas, whereas Daṇḍin's viparyayas are partly the characteristics of his Gauda Mārga, and as such, they constitute positive entities.

^{10.} Loc. cit.

^{11.} Taruṇavācaspati, who explains viparyaya as 'opposite' (i, 42), remarks in connection with i. 88; kānti-viparyayam atyuktināma guṇam gauḍābhimatam daršayati. This statement confirms our point that the Gauḍas could not have taken viparyayas as positive blemishes since they were supposed to add charm to their composition.

derivable from the different views is almost the same. Thus, we may distinguish three different views:

- (1) The Gauda Mārga generally presents a different aspect as regards the essentials of a diction. The word eṣām in this case would refer to the essentials (prāṇāḥ) and viparyaya would mean anyathātva or a different aspect.
- (2) Far-fetchedness, unevenness etc. which are themselves the opposites of excellences like lucidity (Prasāda), evenness (Samatā) etc., are sometimes noticed as existing in the Gauḍa Mārga. The word eṣām in this case would refer to śleṣādīnām guṇānām and viparyaya would mean vaiparītya or opposite.
- (3) The conception of the Gaudas regarding the excellences of composition generally differs from that of the Vaidarbhas. This view may be arrived at from the hint given in the Hṛdayaṅgamā, where eṣām has been taken to refer to śleṣādīnām guṇānām and viparyaya to mean anyathātva.

All these interpretations, though seemingly divergent so far as the terms esām and viparyaya are concerned, lead us to some important conclusions on which there appears to be general agreement. No one would perhaps deny that (i) the ideals of composition differ generally in these two types of poetry, i.e. if the Vaidarbha Mārga demands compactness of structure, clarity of expression, a sense of proportion, evenness of syllable-structure etc., the Gaudas are satisfied with hyperbole and verbosity, alliteration and bombastic expressions, and such other characteristics. (ii) In order to attain this standard the Gaudas do not care if they have sometimes to have recourse to saithilya, vaisamya etc. But it must not be understood on that account that looseness, harshness, unevenness of syllable-

structure etc., which are deviations from or even opposites of qualities like Śleṣa, Sukumāratā and Samatā, form the inseparable characteristics (prūnāh) of the Gauda Mārga, as the excellences like Śleṣa, Prasāda etc., do of the Vaidarbha Mārga. (iii) Far-fetchedness, exaggeration, looseness etc., are looked upon as positive excellences by the Gaudas, who sometimes entertain them in poetry for a particular purpose, viz, the achievement of their standard of poetry which differs ¹² fundamentally from that of the Vaidarbhas,—the one emphasising the chaste and classical manner and the other preferring the fervid and the bombastic. That Daṇḍin meant to imply all this will be clear as we proceed with his treatment of the individual Guṇas, which we now propose to take up in detail.

(1) ŚLEṢA. It is found in a composition which is free from looseness (śaithilya), and this looseness consists mostly in the use of alpa-prāṇa syllables, i.e. syllables containing unaspirated letters which require little effort in pronouncing, or more technically, the first and third (non-conjunct) letters of each varga, and the semivowels and nasals, the rest being mahāprāṇa-syllables 4. The Vaidarbhas are fond of compactness

^{12.} The word prāyas, in i, 41 is important in this connection. The characteristics of these two types of poetry often differ but sometimes they agree. The Gauda Mārga sometimes presents opposites of and deviations from the excellences prevailing in the Vaidarbha, but qualities such as Samādhi, Arthavyakti, Audārya, Mādhurya and Ojas are more or less common to both the Mārgas, as we shall see hereafter.

^{13.} Slistam asprsta-saithilyam, alpa-prānākṣarottaram stithilam. ... i, 43, a-c.

^{14.} ayugmā varga-yamagā yanascālpāsavah smṛlāh, quoted by Bhaṭṭojī Dīkṣita, under Pāṇini, viii, 2, 1. On these technical terms, see Belvalkar's notes on Kāvyādarśa (Bombay edition), pp. 55 f.

of syllabic binding (bandha-gaurava...i, 44b), which is illustrated by examples like mālatī-dāma lainghitain bhramaraih (i. 44 c-d), where though soft syllables like ma and la are present, the effect of looseness or śaithilya has been removed by the use of mahāprāna syllables and conjunct consonants, and as such the passage illustrates the excellence Slesa. A fondness for alliteration inclines the Gaudas to accept instead a composition like mālatīmālā lolālikalilā (i, 43. c-d), though it contains alpaprāna syllables and consequently involves śaithilya. It is, however, not meant that śaithilya¹⁵ in itself is a blemish. From the point of view of the Vaidarbhas it may appear so, and Dandin elsewhere says that all-soft syllables constitute a blemish of looseness (bandhaśaithilya-doso hi darśitah sarvakomale, i, 59). But to the Gaudas it is a preferable excellence of diction inasmuch as it gives more scope to alliteration.

a sense which is well-known (prasiddhūrtha...i, 45, a) and easily comprehended (pratīti-subhaga...i, 45 d). Theorists, old and new, define and emphasise this special excellence almost in the same way. Too much strain required to arrive at a meaning spoils the charm of poetry. The illustration given by Dandin is indor indīvara-dyuti lakṣma lakṣmīm tanoti (i, 45 b-c), "the moon's spot resembling the glow of a blue lotus increases its beauty". Here the words indu, indīvara, lakṣmā and lakṣma are so well-known that the expression conveys its sense without any effort. Here, as elsewhere, Dandin speaks of the characteristics of the Gauda Mārga side by side with

¹⁵ We do not think saithilya is exactly the opposite of Ślesa, which is an admixture of alpa-prāna and mahāprāna syllables. A composition consisting exclusively of mahāprāna syllables would constitute the exact opposite of saithilya.

the excellence attached to the Vaidarbha. The Gaudas who aim at learned expressions prefer even what is not conventional (nātirūdha)16. Since their idea of poetic excellence differs from that of the Vaidarbhas they appear to hold that poets can achieve distinction only when they have mastered etymologies and vocabularies and can use difficult words and round-about expressions, while the Vaidarbhas aim at making their composition lucid and easily intelligible to every reader by the use of wellunderstood expressions. Here we would like to maintain that the term vyutpanna is not the name of the viparyaya corresponding to prasāda, but we follow the Hrdayangamā in interpreting it as vyutpannam iti (hetoh), i. e. by reason of its being learned. The example given the Gauda mode (anatyarjunābjanma-sadrksānko balakṣaguḥ...i, 46. c-d) contains difficult expressions, the meanings of which are not clear on the surface. Ariuna is generally used to denote the third Pandava and it is not $r\bar{u}dha$ in the sense of 'white': the expressions balaksagu (white-raved, i. e. moon) and anatyarjuna (anati-dhavala) are round-about and unusual.

(3) SAMATĀ. It consists in the absence of unevenness in syllabic structure (bandheṣvaviṣamam i, 47a) or rather in the arrangement of letters (varṇa-vinyāsa i, 47d). There must be an evenness between the beginning and ending of a stanza as regards the arrangement of letters or syllables, i. e. if a passage begins with soft vocables it must end similarly. There are three kinds of such structure (bandha), namely, (i) soft (mṛdu) (ii) harsh (sphuṭa) and (iii) temperate or mixed (madhyama), arising from the grouping together of soft, harsh or mixed

^{16.} vyutpannam iti gaudīyair nati-rūdham apīşyate | i, 46. a-b.

^{217.} See Sanskrit Poetics, Vol II, p 101 and also Belvalkar's notes.

letters¹⁸. The examples of Samatā consisting of three structures (*bandhas*) and that of the uneven structure (*vaiṣamya*) are given in the two verses:

kokilālāpa-vācalo mām eti malayānilaḥ \
ucchalacchīkarācchāccha-nirjjharāmbhaḥ-kaṇokṣitaḥ \
candana-praṇayodgandhir mando malaya-mārutaḥ \
spardhate ruddhamaddhairyyo vararāmā-mukhāni-

laih 1 1, 48-49.

Here each half-verse is supposed to consist of the illustration of a particular bandha in the order mentioned in i, 47, whereas the latter half of the second verse illustrates vaisamya19. The Gaudas, we are told, admit such compositions (even though they lack uniformity of syllable structure) for the sake of richness of ideas and Alamkāras (arthālamkāra-dambarau...i, 50b), which being their specific aim, they do not care whether they find it in an even or an uneven structure. Tarunavācaspati suggests that, even though each half-verse contains an example of Samatā, the soft (mrdu) and harsh (sphuta) bandhas are not accepted by the Vaidarbhas, for the soft structure is devoid of distinction and the harsh one of agreeableness. This probably implies that the Gaudas would sometimes like the Samatā displayed in soft and harsh structures, and hence they would not have recourse to raisamya as a matter of principle. In certain cases,

^{18.} On the variant reading samam bandheşu vişamam (Bombay ed.), see Belvalkar's notes in his edition at p. 45 ff.

^{19.} Belvalkar and Rangācārya reasonably suggested that to avoid syntactical difficulties these two verses should be taken as separate examples of viṣamya, whereas "the halves are by themselves examples of Samatā." Thus, we should connect the word iti in the beginning of i, 50, with the two previous verses, and not with the latter half of the second verse i. e. i, 49 c-d only.

however, they would sacrifice evenness for the sake of artha-dambara and $ala\dot{m}k\bar{a}ra$ -dambara 2 0 .

(4) MADHURYA. It consists in the establishment of rasa in the word and in the theme 21 (vāci vastuny api rasasthitih, i, 51a-b). S. K. De has already shown² that the term rasa as found in Dandin's treatment does not involve the technical sense in which it is used by the Rasa and Dhyani-theorists, but should be taken in the non-technical sense of pleasing poetic flavour generally. But in Dandin's Madhurya, as S. K. De further points out.23 the term rasa seems to bear another distinct technical connotation which is different from that given by the Rasa and Dhyani schools; and this is implied in the special meaning attached by Dandin to the vāg-rasa and vastu-rasa involved in his Mādhurva, the former consisting of repetition of sounds belonging to the same śruti (śrutyanuprāsa) and the latter connoting absence of vulgarity (agrāmyatra). Tarunavācaspati rightly gives them the names of (sabda-mādhuryya) (i, 52) and artha-mādhuryya (i, 62) respectively, suggesting thereby a two-fold characteristic of this special excellence. Dandin himself recognised the two-fold aspect

^{20.} The terms artha-dambara and alamkāra-dambara should be explained as indicating a partiality for excessive ornamentation and for exaggerated conceptions, which latter cannot be strictly called ornamentation. The akṣara-dambara i. e. sabda-dambara, which Bāṇa refers to as a characteristic of the Gaudas, must mean a certain leaning towards verbal bombast, while artha-dambara is not exactly verbal bombast but has an implication of what may be called 'mental bombast.'

^{21.} or sense (artha, i, 62.)

^{22.} Sanskrit Poetics, II, p. 137. fn.

^{23.} The Theory of Rasa in Sir Ashutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Volumes (Orientalia, Vol. III), p. 212 ff, where the subject has been fully treated.

of this particular Guṇa, as will be understood from his remark vibhaktam iti mādhuryam in i, 68 c. It is noteworthy that he has nowhere else made any distinction between a śabda-guṇa and an artha-guṇa as Vāmana has done; nor like Bharata, does he expressly state that he looked upon any Guṇa as relating either to śabda or to artha. The standard of distinction between a śabda-guṇa and an artha-guṇa, which the later writers describe as āśrayāśrayibhāva and which we find first fully established in Vāmana's work²⁴ leads us to judge that some of the Guṇas of Bharata and Daṇḍin belong to śabda, some to artha and others again to both.

The vāg-rasa or śabda-mādhurya is said to consist of what may be called *śrutyanuprāsa* This is not alliteration consisting of repetition of the same or similar syllables, but it is the name given to the specific grouping of similar sounds 25 (śruti-sāmya) which exists in letters belonging to the same sthana or place of utterance and effort (e. g. kantha, tālu, danta, etc.), or homogenous letters to which Pāṇini 26 gives the name savarna and which is defined as tulyāsya-prayatna. The example given in this connection is eşa rājū yadā laksmīm prāptavān brāhmana-priyah (i, 53 b), where the use of s and r, y and l, t and d as well as p and b produces śrutyanuprāsa. It involves an economy of effort in articulation, and thereby gives a special pleasure to the Vaidarbhas, who avoid, for fear of incurring monotony, mere rarnanuprāsa or the alliteration consisting of repetition of

(Kāmadhenu, p. 84.)

^{24.} Gopendra Tripurahara remarks clearly : รัลbสลิกปกลูนทุนิกลิทักนิสาสเต bhedabhave pi sabdarthoposlesa-vasad asti bhedah.

^{25.} S. K. De, Sanskrit Poetics, II, p. 101, fn. 8. The yamaka is excluded expressly (i, 61) as being not conductive to Mādhurya. Daņdin treats of yamaka later on in ch. III as a sabdālamkāra.

^{26.} Astadhyāyī i, 1, 9 (sūtra 10, Siddhāntakaumudī).

similar letters.²⁷ The Gaudas, however, are fond of varnānuprāsa displayed in examples.²⁸ like

cāru cāndramasam bhīru bimbam pasyaitad ambare. manmano manmathākrāntam nirdayam hantum udyatam (1, 57),

where the repetition of *ea*, *ba*, *ma*, and *na* in the words produce the desired alliteration. Here the Gaudas take special care to see that too many syllables do not intervene the repetition of similar letters for that would destroy the immediateness of the effect.

Hemacandra (p. 198) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 189) remark that $v\bar{a}g$ -rasa (or $\hat{s}abda$ -mādhurya as Taruṇa-vācaspati calls it) consists both of $\hat{s}rutyanupr\bar{u}sa$ and $varṇ\bar{u}nupr\bar{u}sa$, and as such it appears that Mādhurya, as a $\hat{s}abda$ -guṇa is admitted in both the Vaidarbha and Gauḍa modes. The only difference is that the character of alliteration slightly differs in the two Mārgas, the

^{27.} The respective effects produced by the two kinds of anuprāsa are described in i, 52 and i, 55. When within any group of vocables is experienced a similarity of sounds, juxtaposition of words (pndāsatti) exhibiting that kind of similarity apparently produces the specific kind of alliteration called śrutyanuprāsa, which involves an economy of effort due to a restriction to the same sthāna of articulation. The varnāvrtti, on the other hand, is contiguity (adūratā) which awakens latent impressions from the immediately earlier cognition of the same sound produced by the same letters (pūrvānubhava-sańskāra-bodhinī). Here also there is an economy of effort, but since one and the same letter is repeated the economy is supposed to decline into a weariness, caused by the employment in the same way of the same organs of articulation.

^{28.} Two kinds of varnānuprāsa appear to be distinguished in the two examples (given in i, 57), viz., in metrical feet (pāda) or inword (pāda). They must be of sufficient contiguity to awaken the impression.

one emphasising śruti and the other varna. Taruṇavā-caspati suggests (i, 60) that the word prāyaḥ in i, 54.29 signifies that śrutyanuprāsa and varṇānuprāsa are both accepted in both the Mārgas: only in i, 58-60 it has been stated that the Vaidarbhas do not admit specific kinds of alliteration like smaraḥ kharaḥ etc., where the alliteration is not accepted on account of its harsh structure in the first half and loose structure in the second half.30

Coming to vastu-rasa or artha-mādhurya, Daṇḍin appears to imply ³¹ that since embellishment is the general source of poetic charm and since all Guṇas and Alaṁkāras go to embellish poetry, it may be granted generally that all embellishment imbues the sense with vastu-rasa or artha-mādhurya: yet what specially does this is the absence of grāmyatā, in which is also included the idea of aślīlatva³² of later writers, and which belongs both to

^{29.} anuprāsād api prāyo vaidarbhair idam (= śrutisāmyam) iṣvate | i, 54 c-d.

^{30.} smaraḥ kharaḥ khalaḥ kāntaḥ kāyaḥ kopaśca naḥ kṛśaḥ |
cyuto māno dhiko rāgo maho jūto savo gatāḥ ||
ityādi bandha-pāruṣyam śaithilyañca niyacchati |
ato naivam anuḥrāsam dākṣiṇātyāḥ prayuñjate ||

i, 59.60.

^{31.} kāmam sarvo'pyalamkāro rasam arthe niṣiñcati | tathāpy agrāmyataivainam bhāram vahati bhūyasā ||

ii 62.

^{32.} It is rather curious that Daṇḍin should bring in the idea of aslīlatva or indecency in this Guṇa. This apparently shows that the rasa in this Guṇa is taken not in the technical sense of the Rasa-theorists, but in the general sense of pleasing poetic effect produced by a certain arrangement of word (vāc) or matter (vastu). Such pleasing effect in the mind of the Sahrdaya is apt to be marred by anything which is grāmya. The grāmya is not vulgar in the restricted sense, but Daṇḍin brings under its connotation the aslīla (both in word and sense, and not in sense

sabda and to artha. This vastu-rasa or artha-mā-dhurya which can be induced by all embellishment but which is specially marked by the absence of coarseness and vulgarity is accepted both by the Vaidarbhas and by the Gaudas. Indecorous and vulgar expressions and ideas are rejected by both, for Dandin clearly lays down: evamādi na śamsanti mārgayor ubhayor api (i, 67 c-d.) **

alone) which equally disturbs a good and pleasing sense. Bharata appears to comprehend the aślila in an aspect of the fault bhinnartha, while Bhamaha includes it under dustata (in śruti and artha) in his first list of general dosas. This first list of Bhamaha's ten dosas appears from the context to mention those which concern the inner nature of poetry, for it is dealt with in connection with the classification and general characteristics of poetry: while the second list of another ten dosas includes faults which are more or This second list of Bhamaha is accepted and verbally repeated by Dandin, but he does not mention the first list of ten dosis, as well as most of Bharata's original ten dosas which includes the idea of the aslīla. In treating the gunas taken as essential characteristics of good poetry. Dandin could not very well avoid referring to some of the essential dosas (e.g. nevatva in arthavyahti) although he does not define and distinguish them properly: and in madhurya it was natural for him to bring in the idea of the avoidance of the aslīla.

- 33. In i, 63-67 two kinds of indecorous expression are distinguished. The proposal in i, 63 is direct and therefore vulgar; in i, 64 it is reached by implication and therefore taken as quite decorous. In i, 66 words are used which, if united together, give rise to a new word in Sanskrit by combination, which conveys a vulgar meaning. In i, 67 the words used, possessing more than one meaning, give rise to an undesirable and indecorous suggestion.
- 34. Hemacandra (p. 198) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 189) remark that Daṇḍin establishes this definition of Mādhurya by rejecting the one given by Vāmana (pṛthak-padatvam), since this excellence consists in alliteration (in its verbal aspect) and as such it may as well be present in compound words. But this unhistorical statement ignores the chronological relation between Daṇḍin and Vāmana, and therefore possesses little value.

(5) SUKUMĀRATĀ. It consists in the absence of harshness due to the use of mostly soft syllables (anisthurāksaraprāyam i, 69a). But it has been remarked in connection with Slesa (p. 82) that in Dandin's opinion, the presence of all soft syllables in a composition makes it sithila, and as such it ceases to be an excellence with the Vaidarbhas. What is implied here is that soft syllables must remain mixed up with slightly harsh ones and conjunct consonants here and there, and that the total effect must be a certain elegance. It might be argued that such an admixture is not a distinctive criterion: Sukumāratā might have a chance of being confused with Ślesa. To meet such an objection Tarkayāgīśa remarks (com. on i, 69, p. 69, ll. 12-19) that the admixture of alpaprāna and mahāprāna syllables constitutes Ślesa, whereas Sukumāratā consists in tenderness as a total effect arising from the admixture of soft (komala) and harsh (parusa) letters. Nor should we understand that what is alpaprāna is necessarily komala and what is mahāprāna, parusa. Even unaspirated letters may give rise to harshness by reason of a specific admixture (alpaprānasyāpi varna-višesa-sainyogatvena parusatvasambhavāt, ibid). Similarly aspirated letters too may give rise to komalatva as a total effect under special mahāprāno'pi vinyāsa-viśesena circumstances evain komalatvam bhajati...ibid.) Thus, it is the general effect that forms the critertion of parusatva or komalatva of. syllables. In a sithila-bandha the syllables are all alpaprāņa and the general effect is 'loose'. In Ślesa this looseness is overcome by the presence of mahāprāna syllables, appearing side by side with the alpaprāna ones and making the general effect compact. In the example mālatīdāma langhitam bhramaraih (i, 44) the conjunct consonants shine prominently and seem to make the structure generally compact. But the example of

Sukumāratā (maṇḍalīkṛtya barhāṇi kaṇṭhair madhura-gītibhiḥ etc. i, 70) consists of an admixture of alpaprāṇa syllables slightly with mahāprāṇa ones, as well as conjunct consonants, but the general effect is not harsh or inelegant.

Here, too, Dandin presents the Gauda ideal side by side. Whereas the Vaidarbhas accept Sukumāratā in which expressions consisting of unharsh vocables generally predominate, the Gaudas have an eye to a glaring composition', and consequently they do not mind if their poetry involves harsh vocables requiring much strain for pronouncing them. The example given here (nyaksena ksapitah paksah etc. i, 72) consists of harsh vocables. but to achieve a glaring or grand effect, as well as an exuberance of alliteration, the Gaudas do not care if they have to sacrifice the general tenderness of structure so welcomed in the Vaidarbha-Mārga. We would like to interpret the words diptam iti as diptam iti (hetoh), following the indication in the Hrdayangamā with reference to vyutpanna in i, 46. These terms vyutpanna. dīpta etc., give us some of the standard characteristics which the Gaudas aim at, and they also serve as an apology for the Gauda poet's deviation from some of the Gunas prevailing in the Vaidarbha mode. Such an interpretation suits the context admirably, since Dandin has all along been presenting the fundamental characteristics that distinguish the two types of poetry.

(6) ARTHAVYAKTI. It is the explicitness of sense which consists in the absence of neyatra⁵³, that

^{35.} arthavyaktir aneyalvam arthasya......(i, 73.a). Dandin does not recognise neyalva and grāmyalva in his treatment of ten technical Dosas. The Post-dhvani writers enumerate a fault called neyārtha where a secondary (indicated) sense is taken recourse to without any established usage (rūdhi) or special motive (prayojana) one of which is absolutely necessary in "Indication."

is, in the absence of extraneous matter to be brought over for the completion of the sense. In other words, it is that excellence in which the idea of a passage is quite clear from the words actually used, and no implication is necessary for the completion of the sense. The example given here.....harinoddhrtā t bhūh khuraksunna-nāgāsrg-lohitād udadheh...(i. 73. b-d) contains Arthavyakti since the redness of the ocean has been explicitly stated to be due to the blood of the snakes that were crushed by Hari's claws. Negatva is illustrated in the next verse³⁶ where the reader requires implication to be understood as to why the ocean was reddened. The Vaidarbhas and the Gaudas both reject it. Dandin says: nedršam bahu manyante mārgayor ubhayor api (i, 75), because the sense is not apprehensible where the śabda-nyāya³⁷ (i. e. the law of the expressive power of the words) has been violated. Thus, Arthavyakti as an excellence is admitted in both the Margas.

We must not think that since Dandin's Prasāda and Arthavyakti both involve explicitness of sense, these two Guṇas should be identical. A distinction, though very subtle, can be made in this respect between these Guṇas. J. Nobel rightly points out (Foundations of Indian Poetry, p. 111) that in Prasāda the sense must not be too unusual, words should be used in their obvious or generally understood senses; whereas in Arthavyakti the connection of ideas must be apprehended from the words actually used, there must not be any expectation $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}nks\bar{a})$ of further word or words to complete the sense.

^{36.} mahī mahāvarāheņa lohitād uddhṛtodadheḥ | itīyatyeva nirdiṣṭe neyatvam uragāṣṛjaḥ | i, 74.

^{37.} The Hṛdayangamā explains śabda-nyāya thus ; yāvad artho'bhimatas tāvac-chabdena bhavitavyam, śabdasyāpi yāvad arthapratipādana-saktis tāvadarthena bhavitavyam iti sabda-sāstra-nyāyah.

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(7) UDĀRATĀ. It implies an elevation consisting of the expression of some high merit; literally, upon the utterance of which (yasmin ukte) is suggested (pratīyate) some excellence possessing elevation (utkarṣavān guṇaḥ kaścit i, 76). Udāratā is said to be present in all the Mārgas**.

The example of this excellence is given in i, 77, which runs thus:—

arthinām kṛpaṇā dṛṣṭis tvanmukhe patitā sakṛt tadavasthā punar deva nānyasya mukham īkṣate #

This implies the eminence of the king's liberality (tyūgasya utkarṣaḥ), which is not expressed in so many words. It cannot be definitely said what Daṇḍin really means by this definition. Only some probable surmises can be made^{3 9}. The use of the expression pratīyate in

The other editions read $k\bar{a}vya$ in place of sarva: yet we can take it that this Guṇa is entertained in both types of poetry in the absence of any mention of the corresponding characteristics prevalent in the Gauda mode.

39. It does not certainly refer to any elevated way of expression but to some implied high merit or utharşavān dharma of the subject-matter described. Thus, it is not equivalent to the uttānapadatā of the Agni-purāṇa (346, 9). It must, however, be distinguished from the poetic figure udātta in ii, 300, where the greatness, high merit or prosperity of a personage is directly expressed or described: and in this light the use of the word pratīyate in the definition of the Guṇa is important. As the illustration shows, Daṇḍin appears to think that the varṇanā-bhangī is essential: otherwise, the udāratā could hardly be an excellence of diction. But it need not mean any technical suggestiveness or pratīyamānatā of the Dhvani-theorists, although the word pratīyate is actually used. The alternative definition of the guṇa cited by Daṇḍin speaks of praiseworthy epithets (ślāghya višeṣaṇa): but this, as the example shows, only refers

^{38.} The Madras edition reads: tad udārāhvayam tena sanāthā sarva-paddhatih | i, 76.

the definition reminds us of the *pratīyamūna artha* of the Dhvani theorists⁴⁰. But we are not certain if the concept of Dhvani as such was at all recognised so early.

Daṇḍin mentions an alternative definition of Udāra in deference to the view of "some" (kaiścid iṣyate.....i, 79, b), which is "something characterised by commendable or eulogistic epithets" (ślāghyair viśeṣaṇair yuktam.....i, 79a) such as līlāmbuja, krīḍā-saras etc. Taruṇavācaspati interprets ślāghya as vaiśiṣṭya-pratīti-kṛt, i.e. bringing into comprehension the particularity or distinctive character of an object and this is supported apparently by Daṇḍin's examples. But we need not take it in this restricted significance alone.

(8) OJAS. It consists in the super-abundance of compound words and it appears to be accepted in both the Mārgas. In the Vaidarbha Mārga it is the soul of prose (gadyasya jīvitam. i, 80 b); even in verse this is the soul resort of the Gaudas (adākṣiṇātyānām..... ekam parāyaṇam i, 80c-d). It is said to be of manifold variety (uccāvacaprakūram.....i, 81c) according as there is a profusion or paucity of heavy (guru) or light (laghu) syllables or an equal mixture of both. This apparently refers to the prosodic long and short syllables. It is further added that this excellence is met with in compositions like ākhyāyikā (dṛśyamākhyāyikādiṣu.....i, 81d). But since the fine distinctions between kathā and ākhyāyikā are not favoured by Dandin, we may presume

to epitheta ornatia of a distinguishing character, like 'toy-lotus', etc. The pregnancy of meaning implied in the first as well as the second definition must therefore be taken in an extremely narrow sense; and the udarata is a guna in so far as it depends upon a particular way of description or varnanabhangī).

^{40.} Premacandra interprets in this definite sense. (Com. on i, 76, p. 76).

that Ojas of manifold variety is acceptable as the life of prose (gadyasya jīvitam) in all kinds of prose composition. The employment of compounds⁴¹ was probably meant to add force or energy to the diction.

The Gaudas, we have been told, use long compounds even in metrical composition. The Vaidarbhas, too, use compounds in verses. But whereas the Gaudas are indiscriminately fond of long compounds, the Vaidarbhas would admit them in verses only when they serve to afford charm without much strain, and do not produce confusion (anākulam hṛdyam iechantyojo girām...i, 83 c-d). Thus, in brief, Ojas, is particularly a characteristic excellence with the Gauda poets, who use it to any degree in any composition, while the Vaidarbhas employ it with greater discretion and with certain restrictions.

^{41.} In the treatment of Anandavardhana (Dhvanyāloka, p. 133) compound words constitute the criterion of sanghaṭanā and not of Guna. The primacy of Rasa having been admitted, Ananda could not maintain that any amount or variety of compound words might be used in any kind of prose composition. Long and middling compounds may be employed in the ākhyāyikā, but since the depiction of sentiment, particularly śrngāra, predominates in the kathā, the compounds must be used with an eye to its awakening, and too many long compounds would be detrimental.

^{42.} Ojas and, for the matter of that, long compounds have all along been accepted as the sine qua non of the Gaudi Rīti, and even in the twelfth century Śrīharṣa regaled the scholarly Indian with his brilliant and sonorous verses. See S. P. Bhattacharyya, loc. cit.

^{43.} Hemacandra (p. 195) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 190) refer to the view of Maṇgala along with Vāmana, and remark that they reject Daṇḍin's definition of Ojas on the ground that long compounds cannot be the special characteristics of Ojas, since this excellence resides in all the three Rītis whereas long compounds are met with only in the Gauḍī Rīti (rīti-traye'pyojasaḥ

(9) KĀNTI. It is said to predominate 4 in a composition which is agreeable to the whole world on account of its not transgressing the general usage of ordinary possibilities. Briefly, it is the absence of the unnatural. This excellence, we are told, is generally found in Vartta and Varnanā. The meaning of the term vārttā is not clear; but the Hrdayangamā explains it as anyonyakathanam, and varnanā as praśainsāvacanam. Premacandra Tarkavāgīśa quotes a definition of Vārttā: anāmaya-priyālāpo vartti vārttā ca kathyate, and explains it thus: priyālāpe hi loka-prasiddha-vastvabhidhānam evocitam (comm. on i, 85 pp. 82-3) He further refers to another explanation of varttabhidhanesu viz., itihasavarnanesu i.e. in legendary accounts. Bhāmaha uses the term vārttā in cases where Vakrokti is absent, and it falls short even of Dandin's Syabhāvokti. It consists of such bald and matter-of-fact expressions as gato'stamarko45 bhātīndur yānti vāsāya paksinah etc. (ii, 87, a-b). It is

sādhāraṇatvād gaudīya-nirdeso na yuktimān iti vāmano mangalas ca Kāvyānusāsana, com. p. 195). We must not, however, place much reliance on these remarks of later writers with regard to Guṇas of the Pre-dhvani theorists. About Mangala we know nothing except what we get in such references: but all the three Rîtis of Vāmana do not contain Ojas, for his Pāncālī has not been defined as possessing it.

- 44. kāntam sarva-jagat-kāntam laukikārthānatikramāt | tacca vārttābhidhāneṣu varṇanāsvapi dṛśyate | i, 85.
- 45. It is interesting to note that although the expression gato'stam' arkah is left out of the range of poetry by Bhāmaha (ii, 87 c-d), it is considered by the Post-dhvani writers to have at least some amount of charm by reason of the varieties of its suggested meaning. Thus, the expression bears only one meaning, viz. 'The sun has set' by the power of its "denotation" while several meanings are possible by "suggestion" according to the nature of the speaker and of the person spoken to. To mention a few, it may mean:—(1) It is time for prayers (speaker—a

rejected by Bhāmaha and there is no indication for supposing that it is accepted by Dandin, whose Svabhavokti too (ii. 9-13) involves at least some amount of charm. So far as Dandin's treatment is concerned, the meaning anāmayapriyālāpa may well serve our purpose. The varnanā may be taken to mean vastu-svarūpa-nirūpana. but even in that case it would be different from Dandin's Svabhāvokti.46 It must be noted here that though the illustrations of Kanti given by Dandin are theoretically said to conform to general usage, they are yet tinged with a slight touch of exaggeration: but this is probably necessary for the sake of a certain heightened expression without which a dry svarūpa-varnana (such as involved in Bhāmaha's vārttā) might become an example of Kāntī. It is thus a heightened expression in the shape of a slight exaggeration that makes Dandin's vārttā fundamentally different from that of Bhāmaha.

The Gaudas⁴⁷ however, are satisfied with exaggerated ideas transcending ordinary possibilities. These highly exaggerated descriptions are called *atyukti*, which, as Taruṇavācaspati remarks, is not a blemish but an excellence pleasing the Gaudas. The examples:

devadhişnyam ivārādhyam adya prabhṛti no gṛham t yuṣmat-pada-rajah-pāta-dhauta-nihśeṣa-kilbiṣam t alpam nirmitam ākāśam anālocyaiva vedhasā t idam evamvidham bhāvi bhavatyāh stanajṛmbhaṇam t i, 89-90,

religious student), (2) no anxiety, your lover is just coming (spoken to an impatient lady-love), (3) there is no trouble from heat now (speaker a wayfarer), (4) take the cows in (spoken to a cowherd) and so on. See K. P. ullāsa V. p. 240).

^{46.} Compare the illustrations in i, 87 and ii, 10.

^{47.} We would accept the order of verses as in the text in the Bombay and Calcutta editions (i. e., place i, 91 of the Madras edition immediately after i, 87 and not after i, 90).

contain indeed highly exaggerated statements, since (1) the dust from the feet of a great man cannot really wash away the sins committed, and (2) to say that the creator created the aerial space as small, because he was not mindful of the extensive expansion of the heroine's breasts is certainly a flattering but an excessive statement. This is not merely a heightened expression, but it indicates sa preference for the exaggerated and the unnatural. Yet the Gaudas are said to make much of such descriptions, and this is really due to the difference of ideals aimed at in the two types of poetry.

(10) SAMĀDHI. It consists in the transference of the qualities of one thing to another. The transference may be manifold, and five different cases are distinguished by Gopendra Tripurahara in his commentary on Vāmana iv, 3, 8, viz., abhidheya-sambandha, sādṛśya, samavāya, vaiparītya and kriyā-yoga. But Daṇḍin speaks of three cases: (i) superimposition (adhyāsa.....i, 94) of the action of one object on another, (ii) transference of the original sense of a word, which may not in itself be very pleasing (e.g. niṣṭhyūta, udgīrṇa, vānta etc. i, 95 a-e) to a secondary sense (gauṇavṛtti-vyapāśrayam i, 95 b) for the sake of some pleasing effect, and (iii) simultaneous superimposition of many qualities (yugapannaika-dharmāṇām adhyāsaḥ ii, 97).

Since transference lies at the root of this particular Guṇa, it may be difficult to distinguish it from poetic figures like Rūpaka etc., which also are based on similar transference of an object or its functions to another object.

^{48.} In i, 88, the *Vidag dha* is a reference to the Gaudas, implying a certain love of learned display, as opposed to the general simplicity aimed at by the Vaidarbhas.

^{49.} anyadharmas tato'nyatra lokasīmānurodhinā | samyagādhīyate yatra sa samādhih smṛtah...... || i, 93.

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As suggested by S. K. De **0 the distinction may be explained by supposing "that in the guṇa there is a transference only of the qualities or actions of one thing to another while in the alainkūra either one dharmin itself is substituted for another, or the new dharma entirely supplants the existing dharma". "But the process of poetic transference", he goes on, "is essentially a mode of figurative expression, resting finally on lakṣaṇā and Vāmana would (partially) regard Daṇḍin's definition of the samādhi-guṇa as constituting the figure vakrokti, which, in his opinion, consists in a similar transference based on resemblance".

This excellence is said to be followed by all poets (kavisārthaḥ samagro'pi tam enam anugacehati i, 100) by which Daṇḍin probably means that it is accepted in both types of poetry, Vaidarbha and Gauḍa. But he may also imply that such a mode of figurative expression is the basis of all poetic expression and no poet (whatever be his ideal of poetry) can do without it⁵¹.

^{50.} Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II. p. 103.

^{51.} We have thus studied Dandin's treatment of the technical poetic excellences. In this connection, we may note certain Doşas which, in Dandin's opinion, serve to afford poetic charm in special circumstances. We have seen that Bhāmaha was the first writer who noticed a non-deterring character of Doşa under particular circumstances. Dandin developed this aspect of Doşa more systematically. In his opinion almost all the technical Doşas, mentioned by him, may turn to be poetic embellishments (Guna or Alamkāra) or at least cease to be Doşas when they suit the circumstances in which they exist. We shall just mention here some of the important cases discussed by him.

⁽¹⁾ Apārtha-doṣa which consists in absence of a connected idea (samudāyārtha-śūnya K. D. IV, 5) is not considered to be a defect when the speaker is (i) a mad man (unmatta), (ii) a drunkard (matta), (iii) a child (bāla) or (iv) one in a distracted state of mind (asvasthacitta) (IV, 7).

From the above sketch it will be clear that in spite of Dandin's professed partiality for the Vaidarbha-Mārga, he gives the Gauda its due recognition as a Mārga of a different type, which might not have been totally acceptable to himself, but which must have an established tradition of its own, differing in many respects from the widely preferred Vaidarbha. To him the Vaidarbha represents the mode of the standard good kāvya, but at the same time he could not help accepting Gauda as a Mārga possessing a distinctive value of its own. If the fixed excellences are considered to be essential in standard good poetry, the Gauda does contain some five or six of them. The Samādhi and Udāratā are accepted in both the Mārgas. The negatva and grāmyatva, as defects of poetry, are rejected by both; and as a corollary, both cherish an equal amount of regard for arthavyakti and arthamādhurya which consist in the avoidance of these faults. The śabda-mādhurya consisting of alliteration finds a place in both these types—only the ideas about alliteration differ. Hemacandra finds vāg-rasa (or śabda-mādhurya)

⁽²⁾ Vyartha-doşa which consists in inconsistent and contradictory statements' (viruadhārtha and pūrvāpara-parāhata IV, 8) may be entertained (bhaved abhimatā iv, 10) in poetry when, for instance, the speaker is in a peculiar state of mind (asti kācidavasthā sā iv, 10a) of love (sābhiṣaṅgasya cetasaḥ iv, 10b).

⁽³⁾ Sasamsaya or the doubtful (iv, 16) turns out to be an embellishment (syād alamkāra evāsau iv, 18c) when it is employed with a definite purpose of producing a doubt in the mind of the person spoken to (samsayāyaiva yadi vā tu prayujyate iv, 18a).

⁽⁴⁾ Violation of facts with regard to (1) place (deśa), (2) time (kāla), (3) technical arts (kalā), (4) popular usage or practice (loka), (5) established philosophical dicta or truths (nyāya) and (6) sacred scriptures (āgamaḥ=sasmṛtiḥ śrutiḥ)—all these Doṣas may, by reason of the peculiar genius of the poet (kavikauśalāt iv, 56b) cease to be Doṣas (utkramya doṣagaṇanām iv, 56c) and be regarded as poetic excellences (guṇavīthīm vigāhate iv, 56d) under certain circumstances (kadācit iv, 56, b).

in śrutuanuprāsa and varnānuprāsa⁵² which are accepted. in Dandin's opinion, by the Vaidarbhas and the Gaudas respectively. The Ojas is accepted by both, with this difference that it is the sine qua non of the Gauda Mārga where it is indiscriminately practised, but the Vaidarbhas use it with some restrictions. Of the three kinds of samabandhas the Vaidarbhas practise only the mixed or middle type, the other two extreme types, vix, mrdu and sphuta being practised by the Gaudas. Hence the latter do not accept vaisamya on principle, but if it is sometimes found in their composition we are to understand that it is there for the purpose of attaining a different ideal. Similarly, if the Gauda deviates from other excellences prescribed for the Vaidarbha as the standard good composition, it is done for the achievement of the same purpose, viz, for attaining a different poetic standard, which had independently developed even long before Dandin expounded his theory.

Judging independently, the treatment of Dandin's Gunas does not seem to be quite clear and consistent. Some of his Gunas are somewhat obscure in their conception or definition. "The definition of udaratva" remarks S. K. De⁵³ "is rather vague, so also is that of kānti, in both of which Dandin apparently admits subjective valuations not clearly indicated". The distinction between certain Gunas does not appear to be very clearly marked (e.g. Ślesa and Sukumāratā, Kānti and Udāratā). The ten excellences shown above, having been described as the life-breath of a standard diction, it is natural to expect that they would all present a positive aspect and should not be defined in negative terms. But in the case of certain Gunas, viz., Artha-vyakti and the second aspect of Mādhurya, the faults to be avoided are first characterised. wherefrom the characteristics of the corresponding Guna

^{52.} Śruti-varnānuprāsābhyām vāg-rasaḥ (p. 198).

^{53.} op. cit. p. 102,

are to be comprehended by implication. Thus, so far as these two excellences are concerned they are negatively conceived (while others present a definite positive meaning) and consequently they give rise to a lack of uniformity in Dandin's conception of the Gunas.

We have already noticed that the splitting up of each Guna as relating to śabda or to artha did not, as a theory, develop till the time of Vāmana. For the first time. Vāmana offers us such a standard for distinction (viz... āśrauāśraui-bhāva) which was later on utilised by writers like the author of the Agnipurāna, Bhoja and Prakāśavarsa who added a third variety of Gunas, namely, the Gunas appertaining to both the word and the sense or referring to Dosas which do not disturb the readers' mind under special circumstances. Dandin, like Bharata, is not explicit on this distinction. Now that this standard of distinction came to be definitely established since Vāmana's time up to the systematic development of the Rasa-dhyani theory, we can apply it to ascertain whether the Gunas as characterised by Bharata and Dandin can be taken as belonging to the word or to the sense or to both. This procedure leads us to conclude that Dandin's Ślesa, Samatā, Ojas and Sukumāratā are prominently what are called śabda-gunas; his Prasāda, Arthavyakti, Udāratā, Kānti and Samādhi belong to artha, whereas his Mādhurya has an implication of both śabda and artha. The two-fold aspect which Dandin imparts to his Madhurya is a more direct evidence justifying the conclusion that this is a Guna having a double character, Vāmana's was an original move on this direction, and with the eye of a novel theorist he read a new aspect in the Gunas of his predecessors from which he shaped a system of his own. What was naively treated in the works of Bharata and Dandin received a systematic development at the hands of this earliest known expounder of the Rīti school, properly so called.

Chapter VI.

VĀMANA'S THEORY OF RĪTI AND GUNA.

In Dandin Mārga is apparently a resultant and not an independent element. Of known writers whose works have come down to us, Vāmana is the first and foremost to develop the conception of Riti and to give it a proper orientation. He is also the earliest known writer who gives us general definitions of the terms Guna and Rīti. His treatment of the Gunas is inseparbly associated with the Riti which is defined as a special arrangement of words (višistā padaracanā...Kāvyālainkāra-...sūtravrtti i, 2, 7) and described as the 'soul of poetry' (ātmā $k\bar{a}vyasya$ i, 2, 6). The speciality consists in the harmonious unification of some standard fixed excellences which are technically called Gunas and which have been generally defined as 'those elements of poetry that serve to embellish it' (kāvyasobhāyāh kartāro dharmāh iii, 1, 1). Thus, in order to endow poetry with a 'soul' Vāmana insists upon imparting a speciality to word-arrangement which speciality is effected chiefly by the harmonious blending of the technical embellishments called Gunas. And these Gunas, unlike the poetic figures (i. e. Alamkāra in the restricted sense), constitute inseparable attributes of poetry (pūrve nityāh iii, 1, 3) since they go to make up the Riti which is the essence of poetic composition. Without them the composition is devoid of any "vaisistya" and consequently becomes "soul less."1

^{1.} So much about the soul which term however must be taken as denoting strictly an analogy; but it is not clear what Vāmana means by "hāvva-sarīra". What Vāmana actually says on this point (vṛtti on i, I, i) is that the word 'kāvya' in his

It will thus be seen that Vāmana logically and more systematically develops the crude teachings of Dandin in establishing a very intimate nay, inseparable relationship between the two poetic elements, namely, Rīti and Guna though all the while, as much as his predecessor, he classifies the Ritis on the basis of the Gunas—the presence of all or some of which constitutes a particular Riti. But while Dandin discusses at some length the prominent characteristics of only two clearly distinguishable types of Marga e.g. the Gauda and the Vaidarbha, Vāmana enumerates them as three and only three adding Pancali to the former's enumeration—and he has not in mind any other Rīti which he has not explicitly mentioned. Thus, from the very outset one would mark in Vamana an attempt to be more clear and outspoken-which in itself is a decided advance made upon Dandin. His Vaidarbhī is, like Dandin's, endowed with all the technical excellences samagra-

opinion, applies to word (sabda) and sense (artha) adorned with Guna and Alamkara; but he adds that it is employed in a secondary sense (bhaktyā) to word and sense. By kāvya-śarīra he elsewhere (i, 3, 10 vrtti) means itivrtta, apparently applying the word to the actual contents of poetry. But the first chapter of his work is designated sarīra and he again uses the word sarīra in his vrtti on i, 2, 6 where he says that this word must be understood after the sentence of the sūtra (rītir ātmā kāvyasva), probably meaning thereby (as explained also by his commentator Gopendra Tripurahara) that the kāvya consisting of sabda and artha (cf. vriti on i, 1, 1) is the sairra of which the āimā is Rīti. And yet he would regard (as the Dhvani theorists rightly point out) the Guna as the essence of Rîti and Dosas as the properties of sabda and artha. Thus Vamana's quest after the soul of poetry is somewhat illusive, and his apprehension of the essence of poetry is, as the Dhvanikara criticises, external and somewhat vague; for he would still view the whole matter from the point of external form. Jagannātha (Rasa-gangādhara. p. 55) appears to realise this difficulty.

gunopetā 1, 2, 11), his Gaudīyā contains Ojas and Kānti (ojahkāntimatī, 1, 2, 12), while his Pāñcālī is marked by the presence of two other Guṇas, namely, Mādhurya and Saukumārya (mādhurya-saukumāryopapannā, 1, 2, 13). Of these three Rītis Vāmana assings the highest place to the Vaidarbhī inasmuch as it unites in itself all the poetic excellences that serve to make poetry fully relishable by imparting to it the maximum amount of speciality or vaiśiṣṭya. The other two varieties have been relegated to an inferior position² in this sense that they lack in one or other aspect of poetic excellence—the Gaudī in Mādhurya and Saukumārya, and the Pāñcālī in Ojas and Kānti.

Though not free from the undeveloped character which is natural to the treatment of an early theorist, Vāmana's ideas mark a great advance in the history of Sanskrit Poetics. No doubt the subjective aspect of poetry as such did not engage attention till the advent of the Dhyanitheorists (and even then not to its full extent), and that the word 'soul' in Vāmana's ideology at least must be taken as nothing more than an illuminating metaphor, yet it should be admitted that it was Vamana to whom for the first time occurred the idea of a deeper significance of poetry. Anandavardhana's criticism of Vamana's standpoint (rīti-lakṣaṇa-vidhāyinām hi kāvyatattvam etad asphutatayā manāk sphuritam āsīt.....under D. K. iii, 52, p. 231) is significant only in the light of the evolution of a clear-cut, coherent and penetrative analysis of these later writers, who would grudge the honour paid to the earlier

tāsām pūrvā grāhyā guņa-sākalyāt. i, 2, 14.
 na punar itare stoka-guņatvāt. i, 2, 15.

^{3.} There is one fundamental point in which the Dhvan theorists differed from Vāmana viz., that while Vāmana considered the Guņa and the Doşa to be properties of śabda and artha the Dhvani theorists regarded them as the dharma of the unexpressed

theorist. Moreover, Vāmana's influence on the later conception of poetry is patent and undeniable.* In the first place, his quest after the essence of poetry was more assiduously and effectively realised by the Dhvani theorists. Secondly, it was he who following perhaps the tradition prevailing in his

sense which takes the form of rasadhvani. In this they, no doubt, mark an advance upon the merely formal analysis and from their own point of view they could characterise Vamana's scheme as inadequate. But even their own scheme was, in a sense, as formal as Vāmana's. When they insisted upon dhvani or suggestion as the essence of poetry they no doubt went a step further and clearly realised that there was something in poetry beyond what is merely expressed, and this unexpressed sense is the most essential. When this unexpressed element is a mood or feeling they thought it to be the most desirable, in deference to their preference of sentimental poetry. But this mood or sentiment they considered to be nothing more than a relishable condition of æsthetic pleasure in the reader's mind, produced by the effect of the poet's representation. They clearly realised, no doubt, this æsthetic fact but they still measured the essence of poetry by its effect, and presented external means for producing it. They never considered poetry as a production of the poet's mind, as externalisation of an internal æsthetic fact, conceived and shaped by the poetic imagination and irreducible as a separate æsthetic fact to a cut-and-dried scheme prescribed by poetics. No doubt externalisation is an important fact and as such deserves the attention of the theorists, for the poet must express his conception through the external medium. But the internal poetic idea as an æsthetic fact cannot be ignored, and the analysis of this process of poetic creation is as important as an analysis of the process of externalisation.

4. We may note here Gopendra Tripurahara's comments on the difference between the poetic ideals of the Riti school and the Dhvani school. He says "rīti-dhvani-vāda-matayor iyāms tu bhedaḥ. tatra prathame rītir ātmā kāvyasya; tadvyavahāra-prayojaka guṇāḥ. Carame tu dhvanir ātmā, sa eva tadvyavahāra-prayojaka iti. uhhayatrāpyālma-niṣṭhā guṇāḥ. Sabdārtha-yugalam sarīram; tanniṣṭhā alamkārā iti ca sarvam avisiṣṭam. (p. 72, ll. 11-14).

Rīti school clearly analysed for the first time the different elements of poetry considering some of them to be essential and others non-essential. In a word, a unifying central principle has first been posited by Vāmana in the history of Sanskrit poetics.

Bearing in mind the limitation that Vāmana's scheme is more or less formal, we must note that unlike his predecessors Vāmana insisted upon a clearcut distinction between the Guna and the Alamkara. We have seen that Dandin offers a general definition of Alamkara as embellishment per se, and in this view he influences Vāmana to whom poetry is charming by reason of its alamkāra which term is employed in the general sense of poetic beauty (saundarya). If it is asked how this saundarya arises. Vāmana would reply that it arises from the avoidance and utilisation respectively of the technical poetic faults (Dosas) on the one hand and the technical poetic excellences (Gunas) and figures of poetry (Alainkāras) other. The poetic figures like Upamā. Rūpaka etc. for which the term alamkāra is used in a narrow sense are employed in poetry in so far as they help the realisation of poetic beauty or alāmkara in the wider sense by which criterion alone poetry is acceptable. Thus, Vāmana gives a definite and clear shape to the position of Dandin who describes the term alamkāra generally as kāvya-śobhākara dharma (ii, 1) which has been applied to the Guna as well as to the technical Alamkāra. The only difference in Dandin's opinion

^{5.} kāvyam grāhyam alamkārāt, i, I, I saundaryam alamkārah i, I, 2. It should be noted that this saundarya Vāmana never attempts to define or describe but he merely considers the means by which it can be attained.

^{6.} sa doşa-gunālamkāra-hānādānābhyām (1, 1, 3). sa khalvalumkāro doşa-hānāt, gunālamkārādānācca sampādyah kaveh (vṛtti on the above).

lies in the supposition that the Gunas are essentially important in the best mode or Marga whereas the Alamkāras may exist in any Mārga; or as Vāmana puts it, the Gunas are permanent or essential (nitya..... iii, 1, 3) and the Alamkāras are variable or non-essential (anitya) characteristics of poetry. All this naturally prepares us for Vāmana's teaching in the beginning of the third chapter, where the Gunas are defined generally as those elements which go to embellish poetic beauty (kāvya-śobhāyāh kartāro dharmāh.....(ii, 1, 1) while the Alamkāras like Upamā, Yamaka etc., are said to heighten the beauty thus produced (tad-atisaya-hetavas tvalainkārāh....iii, 1, 2). And hence the Gunas are taken as inseparable attributes of poetry and consequently the Alamkāras which are not absolutely indispensable for the production of the poetic charm but may serve to heighten it when produced, are relegated to a subordinate position as an element of poetry. The analogy which later writers found between the Gunas and qualities of energy, sweetness etc., residing inseparably as virtues of the human soul as well as the analogy between the Alamkāras or poetic figures and ornaments on the human body (which embellish indirectly through the sound and sense the underlying soul of sentiment but not invariably) has been noted by Vāmana in the two illustrative verses cited under, iii, 1, 27. But it must be clearly understood from Vāmana's treatment that he would

(vytti under iii, 1, 2. p. 70)

^{7. (1)} şuvater iva rüpam anga kāvyam svadate suddhaguņam tad apy atīva ļ vihita-praņayam nirantarābhih sadalamkāra-vikalpa-kalpanābhih ||

^{(2) 1} ali bhavati vacas cyulam gunebhyo | vapur iva yauvanabandhyam anganāyāh | api jana-doyitāni durbhagatvam niyatam alamkārāni samsrayante ||

regard both the Guna and the Alainkara (although in different degrees) as the properties of śabda and artha.

As the means of arriving at poetic beauty, in Vāmana's opinion, is the avoidance of Dosas and the utilisation of Gunas and Alamkāras Vāmana, like his predecessors, lays down at the outset that poetry must be free from Doşas. The Doşas are generally defined as "guna-viparyayātmano dosāh (ii, 1, 1): they are those elements of which the characteristics are opposite to those of the Gunas i. e. if the Gunas produce the poetic charm the Dosas destroy it. They are classified under four heads according as they belong to the word (pada) and its sense (padārtha) or to the sentence (vākya) and its sense (vākyārtha). These are again conceived under two different aspects viz., (1) sthūla dosas which are Dosas by themselves, and (2) $s\bar{u}ksma^s$ dosas which are such only in reference to particular Gunas. Bearing in mind Vāmana's definition of Dosa as the opposite of the Guna as an element, the first of the two sets of Dosas spoken

^{8.} This classification based on such a terminology is not expressly discussed. Vāmana only states at the end of his treatment of Dosas that he shall mention suksma dosas in connection with his consideration of the Gunas (ve tvanye sabaarthadosah sūksmās te guna-vivecane vaksyante...vrtti on ii, 2, 24. p. 67 -68). From this Gopendra Tripurahara remarks that the Dosas treated in ii, i are to be known as sthula (asminnadhikarane laksanīvā dosāh.....sthūlā ityavagantavyam (com. on ii, I, 3). suksma dosas would fall under what the later writers would call anitya dosas. The kāmadhenu explains the word sūksma as kāvya-saundaryāksepānatiksama. Vāmanas vyti etcdosās tvag aya jnatavyah (p. 67) shows that the nityanityatva of Dosas in the later theory was also advocated in a way by Vāmana. These Dosas do not detract so much from the poetic beauty but best types of poetry should be free from them. Vāmana also refers to upama dosas following in general the tradition associated with Medhavirudra (cf. Bhamaha, ii, 44).

of would refer to those general defects which mar poetic beauty in general just in the same way as the Gunas create it. The second set, on the other hand, would correspond to those viparyayas of Dandin which may be considered as "opposites" and are marked by characteristics which are exactly contrary to those of the corresponding Gunas. Thus śaithilya which is a characteristic of excellence Prasada would become a veritable viparyayadosa contrary to the Guna Ojas, if it is not used along with that Guna (iii, i, 7) Similarly all the other śabdagunas excepting Samādhi and two of the arthagunas, namely, Prasāda and Samatā have been shown to possess some corresponding sūksma or viparyaya-dosas, although the names of the *viparyayas* are not clearly mentioned. Thus Vāmana, unlike Bharata and Dandin, would apparently employ the term viparyaya as "opposite" in connection with both sets of Dosas; and in thus clearly enunciating and enumerating these technical and viparyaya sets of Dosas he anticipated and influenced later writers like Bhoja and Prakāśavarsa.

Information is lacking as to how far exactly the Rīti and Guṇa theories may be traced back in the history of poetics. We have seen that Bharata's Guṇas, which are the same as those of Daṇḍin in name and mumber, were treated theoretically in connection with the drama just like the Lakṣaṇas and the Alamkāras. But at the same time we should not forget that even in Bharata's time the kāvyaguṇa must have been known, though we do not meet with any discussion about the nature and character of Rīti in his treatment. So far as our present knowledge goes Daṇḍin is the first to enumerate and discuss the Guṇa in connection with Rīti. Vāmana, in support of his definitions of Rītis utilises some verses probably from some unknown source where the Rītis are found to have been defined, amongst other characteristics, in terms of

the Guṇas and which was later on appropriated by Bhoja (ii, 29-31. p. 134) in his definitions of Rītis both in sense and in expression. At the end of the chapter (iii, 1, 1-28) dealing with śabda-guṇas Vāmana cites a series of verses which correspond to his own definitions of the śabda-guṇas (p. 82). It is evident from these and also from the finished form of the treatment of Daṇḍin and Vāmana that the Rīti and Guṇa theories had had a long history behind it even before Vāmana came into the field, and that he was following a tradition prevailing in the school to which he belonged. Works embodying this tradition which would have shown us the history in the making have not yet been discovered.

Although Vāmana theoretically follows his predecessors Bharata and Daṇḍin in the number and nomenclature of his Guṇas, yet he practically doubles the number by splitting up each of the Guṇas as relating to the śabda or to the artha. The distinction between the śabda-guṇa and the artha-guṇa the śabda-doṣa and the artha-doṣa and the śabdālaṅnkāra and the arthālaṅnkāra as standardised

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9. aspṛṣṭā doṣa-mātrābhiḥ samagra-guṇa-gumphitā |
vipañcī-svara-saubhāgyā vaidarbhī rītir iṣvate ||
( under 1, 2. 11 )
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Bhoja reads asamāsā.....in place of the first foot of the above verse.

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samastūtyudbhaṭapadām ojaḥkāntiguṇānvitām |
gauḍīyām api gūyanti rītiṃ rīti-vicakṣaṇāh ||
( under 1, 2, 12 )
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āslista-slatha-bhāvām tu purāņa-cchāyayānvitām |
madhurām sukumārām ca pancālīm kavayo viduh |
(under 1, 2, 13)

It is interesting to note that later on Vāmana denounces purānacchāyā (— reflection of conventional things: vṛtti on iii, 1, 25) as arising out of the absence of the sabda-guṇa, Kānti which consists in aujjvalya (richness of words),

by Vāmana, was accepted and developed by later writers till the Rasadhvani theorists like Mammaṭa and Viśvanātha criticised the inadequacy or uselessness of such a distinction. It is worthy of note here that Vāmana does not quote any verse in support of the definition of his artha-guṇas, as he does in the case of his śabdaguṇas. Hence, in the absence of any previous work dealing with such an analysis of each Guṇa, we are inclined to conclude that Vāmana was the first to evolve this two fold division of each of the Guṇas. His insight read a new meaning in the Guṇas of his predecessors as a result of which he analysed this Guṇa Concept, formed a new theory of classification and consequently influenced the later writers, some of whom evolved even a third set of Guṇas belonging at once both to the śabda and the artha.

Each of the ten Guṇas of Vāmana has been treated under two heads as (i) a śabda-guṇa and (ii) an artha-guṇa respectively:—

I. OJAS:-(i) Gādha-bandhatva (iii, 1, 5.) or compactness of word structure, by which is meant perhaps the cohesiveness due to the frequent use of conjunct consonants specially of the letters of the same varga or of any other letter conjoined with r or y. In the example given vilulita-makarandā mañjarīr nartayanti, Vāmana probably thinks that there is compactness of structure due to the conjunction of consonants like n and d, n and t, r and n. The contra-indication will be if this sentence is put as vilulita-madhudhārā mañjarīr lolayanti where the conjunct consonants noted above are absent. There are indeed two conjunct consonants in this latter illustration: but they are apparently taken to have created a looseness in the structure which is the characteristic of another Guna viz., Prasada. Vamana does not go to details. He seems to insist on compactness of structure in which loose syllables are avoided or if they

appear they do along with comparatively harsh ones, producing as a total effect, a cohesiveness in the structure. ¹⁰ It is probably because of this consideration that S. K. De¹¹ has taken Vāmana's śabda-guṇa Ojas to correspond to Daṇḍin's Śleṣa.

- (ii) Arthasya praudhih (iii, 2, 2) or boldness in the expression of ideas, which has been explained in the vṛtti in five different ways. These are (1) padārthe vākya-racanam i.e., the use of a series of words instead of a single word e.g. nayana-samuttham jyotir atreh instead of candra.
- (2) Vākyārthe padābhidhā or the use of a single word in order to convey the meaning of a sentence e.g. the word nimiṣati instead of using divyeyam na bhavati kimtu mānuṣī from the convention that gods never wink.
- (3) $Vy\bar{a}sa$ or analytic expression of ideas by a diffuseness in which the self-same idea is sought to be expressed in more ways than one. The illustrative verse:

ayam nānākāro bhavati sukha-duḥ kha-ryatikaraḥ sukham vā duḥkham vā na bhavati bhavatyera ca tataḥ ١

In the example of Ojas (quoted in the text p. 94 above) Vāmana seems to emphasise more the use of conjunct consonants than the presence of compound words. But his illustration of Gaudī Rīti (p. 20, under i, 2, 12), in which Ojas plays a prominent part, consists of an abundance of compound words.

¹⁰ Gopendra Tripurahara (Kāmadhenu p. 73. 11. 9-11) remarks that compactness of structure (gāḍha-þandhatva) arises from the following:—samyuktākṣaratvam, nirantara-repha-siraskair vargāṇām prathama-dvitīyais tṛtīya-caturthaih prathamais tṛtīyais ca samyogāḥ, visarjanīya-jihvāmūlīyopadhmānīyāḥ, gurvantatā, samāsās ca.

^{11.} Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II, p, 119.

punas tasmād ūrdhvam bhavati sukha-duḥkham
kimapi tat
punas tasmād ūrdhvam bhavati na ca duḥkham
na ca sukham
(under iii. 2, 2, p. 86)

consists of as many as five sentences used to denote a single idea, namely, happiness and sorrow revolve in a cycle according to destiny 12.

(4) Samāsa or synthetic expression of ideas by a brevity in which several sentences are joined together in one integrated whole through the use of suffixes sanctioned by grammar. In the verse:

te himālayam āmantrya punaḥ prekṣya ca śūlinam t siddham cāsmai nivedyūrtham tad-visṛṣṭāḥ kham udyayuḥ t (ibid)

We have a single "simple" sentence in place of the following several sentences: they took leave of Himālaya—they saw Śiva—they reported their success to him—they were dismissed by Śiva—they flew away to the skies.

(5) Asya (arthasya) sābhiprāyatvam i.e. the appropriateness of meaning due to the use of particular epithets which, through ellipsis, bear a special significance. The Kāmadhenu explains the word sābhiprāyatvam as padāntara-prayogam antareņa tad-artha-pratyāyana-prāgalbhyam (p. 86, 11. 6-7). In the example given:

^{12.} On this Candidāsa (K. P. dīpikā, fol. 115a) remarks:—
atra yena samsāriņā yādršam karma krtam tad-anusārenaiva
tathāvidho mišrita-sukha-duḥkhādi-bhogaḥ kriyate. yadi kutascid
ātmasākṣātkārah syāt tadaivāsya pravāhasya šāntir ityeva hi
vivaksitam vaicitryenocyate.

so'yam samprati candraguptatanayas candraprakāso yuvā 1

jāto bhūpatir āśrayaḥ kṛtadhiyām diṣṭyā kṛtārthaśramaḥ (ibid)

This very son of Candragupta, bright as the moon (?) and the patron of men of letters has, by good luck, succeeded in his labour: the expression, āśrayah kṛta-dhiyām has been added with the special purpose of indicating the fact that the prince had Vasubandhu (or Subandhu)¹³ as his minister. Similarly the example 'on the loosening of the hair of the lady' (vigalitabandhe keśahaste) who possesses beautiful hair (sukeśyāh), the qualifying phrase has been inserted with a special significance^{13a}

mahaujaso mānadhanā dhanārccitā dhunurbhṛtaḥ samyati labdhakīrtayaḥ | nasamhatās tasya nabhinna-vṛttayaḥ priyāṇi vānchanty asubhiḥ samīhitum || (Kirātāriunīva i

(Kirātārjunīya, i, 18)

go to support the statement in the last line of the verse viz., that they tried to do good to him even at the cost of their own lives. Other commentators of the Kāvyaprakāśa are inclined to explain the word asya in the vrtti as referring to \$abda; but the difficulty is that the context in Vāmana hardly permits us to interpret the word asya in that way. [It should, on the other hand, refer to artha whose Gunas Vāmana is discussing in the

^{13.} This verse has been the subject of much keen controversy amongst scholars—the point of discord centring round the reading wasubandhu-sācivya or ca subandhu-sācivya in Vāmana's vṛtti. (Vide the paper on "Vasubandhu or Subandhu?" in the proceedings of the second Oriental Conference, Calcutta, pp 203-213).

¹³a. Vaidyanātha Tatsat (com. on Kāvyapradīpa, p. 282) explains the word sābhiprāyatvam as prakrtārthopa-yuktatvam i.e. suitability to the subject-matter in hand and remarks that the qualifying adjectives mahaujasah (highly vigorous) mānadhanāh (rich in selírespect) etc. in the verse

- II. PRASĀDA:—(i) Śaithilyam (iii, 1, 6) or looseness of structure. Meeting the possible objection that this constitutes a veriable Doṣa since it is the opposite of the Guṇa Ojas, Vāmana holds that Prasāda as a śabdaguṇa is an excellence only when it appears along with Ojas (guṇaḥ saṃplarāt.....iii, 1, 7) and not by itself (śuddhas tu doṣa eva). Again, if it is asked how can these contradictory attributes appear together, Vāmana would appeal¹⁴ to the common experience of persons who enjoy pleasure and pain simultaneously when they witness representations of pathos¹⁵.
- (ii) Arthavaimalyam (iii, 2, 3) or clearness of meaning, arising from the use of such words as are

chapter under consideration.] Māṇikyacandra (p. 193) seems to be of opinion that the abhiprāya belongs primarily to the speaker or the hearer and that when it is said that this relates to an excellence belonging to the sense we are to understand that this is due to a secondary usage. The difficulties with which Māṇikyacandra was confronted will probably be solved if we do not take abhiprāya too literally but understand it, like Tatsat, to mean prakṛtārthopayuktatva. It appears that these commentators are anxious to approximate this aspect of Vāmana's artha-guṇa Ojas to the poetic figure Parikara of later writers which has been defined by Mammaṭa as višesaṇa-sābhiprāyatvam.

14. sa tu samplavas tu (?) anubhava-siddhah tadvidām ratnādivišesavat. atra ślokah:—

karunapreksanīyesu samplavah sukha duḥkhayoh | yathānubhavatah siddhas tathaivaujahprasādayoh || (under iii, 1, 8).

15. Hemacandra (p. 196) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 191) however, would reject such an appeal remarking, in accordance with the views of the Post-dhvani theorists, that the audience derive only pleasure and not pain from such exhibitions. Vāmana adds that in such cases of combination of the two excellences there is sometimes equality between the two and sometimes superiority of the one to the other (sāmyotkarṣau....iii, 1, 9).

absolutely necessary (pravojaka-mātra-pada-pariaraha). In the example savarnā kanyakā rūpa-yauvanā-rambhaśālinī, (a maiden of the same caste endowed with beauty and budding youth), the qualifying adjectives are not superfluous. In the illustration of the vivaryaya-dosa arising therefrom, upāstā in hasto me vimala-mani-kā neīpadam idam (let my hand approach the girdle zone of beautiful gems) the mention of girdle zone only is what is necessary and the epithet 'of 'beautiful gems' is superfluous. The Kāmadhenu (p. 87) distinguishes between this artha-guna and the fifth variety of the artha-praudhi thus:—In the one some words are absolutely necessary in order that the passage might fit in with the context instead of being meaningless; in the other, they carry a special significance without which, however, the composition would not be defective. Vāmana's artha-vaimalya is really the excellent literary quality which avoids superfluity.

III. ŚLESA:—(i) Masmatvam (iii, 1, 10) or smoothness, resulting from such a close proximity or coalescence of several words by virtue of which they all appear to constitute a single whole (yasmin sati bahūnyapi padāny ekavad bhāsante). The definition is generally intelligible but not so all the illustrations that Vāmana gives. It is difficult to understand why of the illustrations given some (in the opinion of Vāmana) contain Śleṣa and others do not. Should we be led by the hints given in the Kāmadhenu¹6, to understand that in the defective sūtram brāhmam uraḥsthale and taḍitkalilam ākāśam, the characteristic, namely, ekavad-bhāsamānatā is lacking due to the difficulties of smooth pronunciation, and also that in the defective example bhramarī-valgugītayaḥ

^{16.} sūtram brāhmam ityatra para-savarņe'pi parusāksarotthānān na slesah (p. 75. ll. 10-11 com)

the effect of smoothness has been spoilt by reason of the use of the word valgu instead of manju? Even then we are inclined to ask on what standard the effect of smoothness is to be judged except by the rather uncertain and variable standard of individual appreciation?

(ii) Ghaṭanā (iii, 2, 4) or commingling or congruity of ideas. Ghaṭanā has been explained by Vāmana as krama-kauṭilyā-nulbaṇatvopapatti-yogaḥ¹¹ (effecting congruity between incongruous ideas by means of a crooked or elever procedure) which Rāmasinha¹s analyses as krameṇa kautilyenānulbaṇatayā upapattyā yojanam arthasya śleṣaḥ etc. and in the course of equating which with Bhoja's arthaguṇa Śleṣa remarks:—aghaṭamānasyeva vākyārthasya buddhicāturyeṇa ghaṭanā iti (a clever bringing about of congruity between apparently incongruous ideas).

In the illustration given by Vāmana¹⁰ there is ghaṭanā or congruity of ideas, since the hero eleverly manages to please two heroines simultaneously which is otherwise a difficult task. Abhinavagupta, in his attempt to approximate Bharata's Śleṣa to Vāmana's takes the same verse as an illustration and remarks:—atra manorathātīto'py ekakāla-nāyikā-yugala-hṛdaya-grahaṇa-lakṣaṇārthaḥ......asambhāvanāspadam na bhavati; tena kuṭilo'pi

^{17.} The way in which the vytti text has been sought to be explained by Gopendra Tripurahara is indicated in fn. 20. Abhinava takes krama-kautilya to mean kutila-krama—the word in the vytti text being an instance of abstract for the concrete.

^{18.} Sarasvatīkaņthābharaņa (comm. on p. 63)

^{19.} dṛṣṭvaikāsana-saṅngate priyatame paścād upetyādarād
ekasyā nayane nimīlya vihita-krīḍānubandhacchalaḥ |
īṣadvakrita-kandharaḥ sapulakaḥ premollaśanmānasām
antarhāsa-lasat-kapola-phalakām dhūrto'parām cumbati |
(under iii, 2, 4.)

yam kramo na hrdaye ulvanatvam bhajate majjati hardaye yatah sarvasyeti²⁰.

IV. $SAMAT\bar{A}$:—(i) $M\bar{a}rg\bar{a}bhedah$ (iii, 1, 11)—
yena $m\bar{a}rgenopakramas$ tasyātyāgah or homogeneity of
diction from the beginning to the end. The viparyaya
which arises from riding roughshod over this excellence is
illustrated in the verse prasīda canḍi tyaja manyum
añjasā etc. Here the verse begins in the active voice but
ends in the passive (tvayā lupta-vilāsam āsyate). The
Kāmadhenu explains $m\bar{a}rg\bar{a}bheda$ as $\bar{a}di$ -madhyāvasāneṣvaikarūpyam, uniformity throughout—in the beginning,
the middle and the end.

(ii) Avaiṣamyam (iii, 2, 5) (1) prakramābhedah, i.e. non-relinquishment of proper sequence of ideas. (2) sugamatvam i.e. ease of comphrehension. The illustrative verse:

cyuta-sumanasah kundāh puspodgameṣvalasā drumā malaya-marutah sarpantīme etc.

being a description of rtu-sandhi (the period when the winter has just ended and the spring has just set in), the mention of maluya-marut, which belongs exclusively to the spring, has given rise to some inconsistency. This inconsistency, however, can be avoided if we replace the reading in the second foot by manasi ca girain badhnan-time kiranti na kokilāḥ (The cuckoos have prepared their melodies but have not yet poured them in), which clearly indicates the end of winter and the beginning of spring. We may note here that Daṇḍin's definition of Samatā is only partially akin to that of Vāmana. It refers only to the uniformity of syllable structure, whereas

^{20.} Probably Ghaṭanā may suggest, from the definition, "the fitness or propriety arising out of a judicious balance (neither more nor less) of order and irregularity of ideas. The difficulty is with regard to the word anulvana which means "not excessive, neither more nor less" but it may also mean "not manifest."

Vāmana's Samatā as a śabda-guna refers to the uniformity of diction and as an artha-guna it insists upon. a proper sequence of ideas. Hemacandra (p. 197) and Māṇikyacandra (p. 192) attribute to Vāmana's school, a view-point which, in the present state of our knowledge about the following of Vāmana, we are not in a position to corroborate—that the uniformity of syllabic structure which Dandin regards as the sine qua non in his definition of Samatā can be included in the rrttis and as such Dandin's Samatā ceases to be a Guna and there arises the necessity of a new definition of this Guna by Vāmana. In fact, Vāmana's Samatā may be taken to have been developed directly from Dandin's inasmuch as the latter speaks only of the symmetry of structure, while the former includes symmetry of structure. of diction and of ideas in this Guna.

V. SAMĀDHI:—(i) Ārohāvarohakramaḥ (iii, 1, 12) which admits of two ways of interpretation. In the first place, it may occur when the wording is such that the heightening effect of the vigorous diction is toned down by a judicious sprinkling of softening words and viceversa (ārohasyāvarohe sati parihāraḥ, avarohasya vā ārohe satīti). Secondly, it means symmetry due to the orderly sequence of ascent or descent. This occurs when there is a gradual rise from the feeble to the vigorous and a gradual decline from the vigorous to the feeble; i.e. an alternating graduation of the soft and the forcible diction (kramenārohanam avarohanam ca).

It may be argued 22 that Samādhi thus defined cannot be a separate excellence by itself because the ascent and

(iii, 1, 13.)

^{21.} This so-called $s\bar{u}ksma-dosa$ has an analogue in the blemish Prakrama-bhainga of later writers.

^{22.} na prthak, ārohāvarohayor ojaḥ-prasādarūpatvāt

descent are nothing more than the excellences of Oias and Prasada. To this Vamana answers that it is not invariably true that in Oias there is ascent, or in Prasada there is descent. Oias and Prasada are often interwoven in Samādhi and exist like the two currents of a single river. Vāmana, however, would accept the position if it is conceded that the ascent and descent occur in a certain heightened stage (tivrāvasthā...iii. 1, 16) of Oias and Prasada because in this case the ascent and descent depend upon a particularity quite its own (viśesa) as distinct from the general nature of Oias and Prasada. Hence, there can be no objection to accepting Samādhi as a separate excellence on the basis of ascent and descent. it being understood that the ascent and descent depend upon these excellences which in their turn do not consist in them. In other words ascent and descent are not the essential but accidental or specific characteristics of Ojas and Prasāda, whenever these two excellences attain a special heightened stage the ascent and descent may occur in some of their parts. Nor can ascent and descent be explained away as referring to the way or tone of reading.

- (ii) Artha-dṛṣṭiḥ (iii, 2, 6) or the excellence which leads to a concentration of the mind for the proper comprehension of the meaning. From this point of view Vāmana classifies the artha or the meaning broadly into two classes, namely:—(1) Ayoni or absolutely original and (2) anyaechāyā-yoni or borrowed from some other source. The two varieties of artha have been illustrated respectively in the verses:—
 - (1) āśvapehi mama śidhubhājanāt |
 yāvad agradaśanair na daśyase |
 candra mad-daśanamandalānkitah |
 kham na yāsyasi hi rohinābhayāt |

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(2) mā bhaiḥ śaśānka mama śīdhuni nāsti rāhuḥ l khe rohiṇī vasati kātara kim bibheṣi l prāyo vidagdha-vanitā-nava-sangameṣu l pumsām manaḥ pracalatīti kim atra citram l

Here the second verse has no doubt been put in a more charming way, but the idea has been borrowed from the first, and hence it is anyacchāyā-yoni. In the first, the moon (as reflected in the wine-vessel) is being asked to go away lest bearing the marks of teeth of the speaker he should have reasonable grounds of apprehensions from Rohiṇi, his wife. In the second, the moon is being implored to come down to the speaker entertaining no fears from the quarters of Rāhu and Rohiṇi. Yet, the moon does not condescend to come down. May be, he is adamant and shirks because of the fact that people get nervous at their first experiences in the company of clever ladies (in which class the speaker would fain include herself to be.)

The artha is further classified into (1) the vyakta or explicit and (2) the $s\bar{u}k\bar{s}ma$ or the subtle, of which the latter is again of two kinds, namely, (2a) $bh\bar{u}vya$ or that which is comprehended after a little thought and (2b) $v\bar{u}san\bar{v}ya$ or that which is more abstruse and is comprehended only by deep thought).

VI. Mādhurya:—(1) Pṛthak-padatva (iii, i, 20) or distinctness of words associated with the exclusion of long compounds (samāsa-dairghya-nivṛti-param caitat). The example, which Vāmana cites of the viparyaya of this excellence contains a long and cumbrous compound. Herein we meet with an appreciable difference between the views of Daṇḍin and Vāmana. While according to the former, the profusion of compound words which add force and energy to the diction, constitutes a special excellence, according to the latter, it is a sūkṣma doṣa which is better eschewed. It

may be that in Vāmana's characterisation of the sabdaguna Ojas where compound words are not explicitly spoken of, these are implied more or less as a part and parcel in his conception of compactness of structure.

(ii) *Ukti-vaicitrya* (iii, 2, 10) or strikingness of utterance by which is meant perhaps a statement in an impressive but periphrastic manner in order to give a special charm thereto. In the illustration given of this excellence:

rasavad amṛtam kaḥ sandeho madhūnyapi nānyathā madhuram adhikam cūtasyūpi prasannarasam phalam! sakṛd api punar madhyasthaḥ san rasāntaravij jano vadatu yad ihānyat svādu syāt priyādaśanacchadāt! (cited under iii, 2, 10, p. 92)

the whole verse wants to say that the lips of the heroine excel all standards of comparison and this has been expressed in an indirect though charming way².

VII. SAUKUMĀRYA:—(i) ajaraṭhatva (iii, 1, 21) or freedom from harshness which generally arises from the use of paruṣa²¹ or harsh syllables and conjunct consonants. Here Vāmana does not differ essentially from Dandin.

(ii) Apāruṣyam (iii, 2, 11) or avoidance of statements that convey disagreeable or inauspicious ideas e.g. the use of yaśaḥśeṣam gatam instead of mṛtam, or of devatādvitīyam in place of ekākinam. This agreeableness of sense is also implied in Bharata as the Guṇa of the same name.

^{23.} This ukti-vaicitrya must not be taken in the specific technical sense in which Kuntaka takes it as an element of his Vairokti, nor in the sense of vaicitrya which Mammata (vrtti on viii, 2 also on x, i,) finds in poetic figures.

^{24.} As for the parusa and komala syllables see the discussion in Ch. V in connection with Dandin's Sukumāratā.

VIII. UDĀRATĀ:—(i) Bandhasya vikaṭatvam (iii, 1, 22) or a certain liveliness of the composition in which the words seem to be dancing (yasmin sati nṛṭyantiva padāni) enabling a graceful turn (līlā) of words and syllables. In other words, it is līlāyamānatva which enlivens the composition with a peculiar swing of words.

(ii) Agrāmyatvam (iii, 2, 12) or avoidance of vulgarity in the manner of the sense when there is the risk of perpetrating it. In the verse:

tvam evam-saundaryā sa ca ruciratāyām paricitah kalānām sīmānam param iha yuvām eva bhajathah t ayi dvandvam distyā tad iti subhage samvadati vām atah sesam cet syāj jitam iha tadānīm guņitayā (under iii. 2, 12, p. 93)

the union of lovers has been delicately hinted at; but the example of the corresponding *viparyaya*²⁵ smacks of lack of refinement and vulgarity in expression. It is to be noted here that like Daṇḍin's Arthavyakti and his second aspect of Mādhurya, Vāmana's Saukumārya and Udāratā (*artha*) have been negatively conceived, resulting in an absence of uniformity in Vāmana's conception and treatment of the Guṇas.

IX. ARTHAVYAKTI:—(i) Arthavyakti-hetutvam (iii, 1, 23) or explicitness of words whereby the meaning is easily comprehended (jhaṭityartha-pratipatti-hetutva). The later writers do not enumerate Arthavyakti as a separate Guṇa, including it under Prasāda.

(ii) Vastu-svabhāva-sphutatvam (iii, 2, 13) or explicitness of ideas which makes the nature of things

^{25.} svapiti yāvad ayam nikate janah svapimi tāvad aham kim apaimi te | iti nigadya sanair anumekhalam mama karam svakareņa rurodha sā || (under iii, 2, 12. p. 94)

clear. This corresponds more or less to Daṇḍin's poetic figure Svabhāvokti, as has been shown by S. K. De.²⁶ In later literature on the subject also it is regarded not as a *Guṇa* but as an Alainkāra.

X. KĀNTI:—(i) Anjjvalyam (iii, 1, 25?) or richness (of words) without which the composition is stale and a reflection of conventional things (yadabhāve purāṇa-cchāyetyucyate). The quality consists in the avoidance of the commonplace which a true literary instinct always obeys. The kāmadhenu too suggests (p. 81, 11. 7-9) that this lies in the use of more polished and elegant turns of expression instead of ordinarily used ones, e.g. kiśalaya for patra and so on. In the illustration given by Vāmana the use of the words kurangī, ālī and stabakita goes a long way in producing a polish in the composition which would have been flat if more commonplace words like hariṇī samūha etc., were used. This excellence would approach very nearly to some aspects of Kuntaka's Vakrokti.

(ii) $D\bar{\imath}pta-rasatvam$ (iii, 2, 14) or conspicuous presence of the Rasas. Abhinavagupta explains $d\bar{\imath}pta-rasatva$ as $vibh\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}m$ $d\bar{\imath}ptatvam$ iti $y\bar{\imath}vat$. In other words, the excitants which bring out the emotional elements of a poem are vividly represented by this excellence. Vāmana's illustrative verse.

preyān sāyam apākṛtaḥ sasapatham pādānataḥ kāntayā dvitrānyeva padāni vāsabhavanād yāvanna yātyunmanāḥ! tāvat pracyutapāṇisampuṭalasan-nīvīnitambam dhṛto dhāvitvaiva kṛtapraṇāmam ahahā premṇo vicitrā gatiḥ! (under iii, 2, 14, p. 95)

Vividly depicts the emotional situation and would, in accordance with the views of later theorists, be classed under the category of Rasa-dhyani.

Now that we have studied all the Gunas of Vāmana, belonging to both śabda and artha, we are in a position to judge the intrinsic value of his treatment. We have seen that Vāmana reads a new meaning in the Gunas of his predecessors especially in the light of the standard of distinction, evolved by him between a sabda-guna and an artha-guna. This standard—as we have also seen—is āśrayāśrayibhāva i.e. a Guna is to be called a śabda-guna or an artha-guna according as it belongs to the śabda or to the artha. But it may be said that the distinction is not always definite and consistently maintained. It is difficult to see, for instance, why the clearness of meaning (artha-vaimalya) in artha-guna Prasada which depends upon the mention of what is absolutely necessary (prayojaka-mātra-pada-parigraha) should be taken as a distinguishing characteristic of an artha-guna when it clearly restricts the use of words. Similarly the arthaauna Saukumārva and the first four varieties of arthapraudhi raise a doubt whether they are related really to the sense or to the word. It is also not convincing why Arthavyakti should be taken as a śabda-guna in spite of the fact that even here the question of artha is involved and there is no reference to the bandha at all. On the other hand, we have the clear and unambiguous definitions of the two kinds of Ślesa, Samatā, Mādhurya and Udāratā in each of which the two-fold character of the Gunas has been distinctly preserved. While it may be argued that śabda and artha cannot be strictly kept apart, like body and soul, and that we are to apply the designation in accordance with the prominence of the one or the other in each aspect of the Gunas. Still in order that there is to be a standard of distinction worth the name there must be a uniformity in the principle of its application, the violation of which proves the defective nature of the scheme, as well as of the standard itself.

It may also be urged that inasmuch as the Riti of which the Guna forms the essence has been defined as pada-racanā, what is the use of enumerating artha-gunas? This objection is easily met for we must not forget that the Gunas serve to impart a special charm to the wordstructure: and so far as that is concerned, it does not matter whether the Gunas belong to the word or to the sense, provided that the one does not go without the other. In the case of a particular artha-guna we are to understand that the Guna serves to impart a speciality to that word-structure to whose sense the particular Guna belongs; or perhaps, it embellishes the sense primarily and directly and the word-structure only secondarily and indirectly. Thus so long as a formal view of poetry and consequently of its elements is taken, it is immaterial whether the Guna embellishes the word or its sense; if it adorns the word it can also adorn its sense through association.

It appears that Vāmana's scheme of the Guṇas is no less mechanical than that of his predecessors Bharata and Daṇḍin. The distinction between one Guṇa and another is not always convincing nor is the definition of a Guṇa always clear. The characteristics are often not exclusive, and therefore not distinguishing. When Vāmana expounds the sūtras with expressions like yasmin sati nṛtyantīva padāni or yasmin sati bahūny api padāny ekavad bhāsante it is difficult to follow what is really meant. They are rather vague explanations of the particulars sūtras²⁷. May not the property of ekavad-bhūsamānatā be also present in Ojas? Do not the examples given under the śabda-guna Prasāda also

^{27.} Or should we understand that the very attempt of an early theoriser like Vāmana to express himself in all possible ways has a particular merit of its own and as such it deserves our commendation?

contain *līlāyamānatā*, the characteristic particularly spoken of as belonging to Udāratā28? The illustrations do not help us always in marking the characteristics which differentiate one Guna from the other, and sometimes the same verse is cited as illustration in connection with several Gunas²⁰. The four characteristics of arthapraudhi in Ojas might also be taken as forms of the strikingness of expression which is singled out as a prominent mark of the arthaguna Mādhurya. Sugamatva or ease of comprehension as an alternative explanation of avaisamya in the artha-guna Samatā might be comprehended in the artha-guna, Samādhi. In presence of this latter Guna there was no need perhaps of the śabda-guna Arthavyakti when both aim at comprehending the meaning, although his Samādhi itself, as S. K. De remarks. 30 "is hardly an excellence". In sabdaguna Samādhi the expression ārohāvarohakrama receives more explanations than one which serve to a certain extent to cloud the point at issue. Vāmana's attempt to clarify the sabdaguna Prasada in the vrtti indicates, as S. K. De has already pointed out "that Vāmana himself was perhaps conscious of the defective nature of some of his definitions". 31

^{28.} The examples of sabda-guṇa Prasāda (pp. 74-75) are all composed in the same metre (Hariṇi). It is also to be considered if the Gunas have any relation to particular metres. We should note here the views of one class of theorists who are of opinion that special metres are exclusively meant for particular Gunas. (Māṇikyacandra's Sanketa, p. 195.)

^{29.} The verse astyuttarasyūm diśi devatātmā etc. has been taken to serve as the illustration of as many as four śabdagunas namely, Ślesa, Mādhurya, Arthavyakti and Saukumārya as suggested in the Kāmadhenu (pp. 79-80)

^{30.} Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II. p. 120.

^{31.} ibid.

The importance of Vāmana's theory, however, does not consist in the detailed treatment of his individual Gunas. His general doctrine of Riti and Guna also has been criticised as too crude and formal an explanation of the charm of poetry, and the defective and unprofitable character of his scheme has been commented upon. But it was Vāmana, who first emphasised the importance of diction in poetry, which sharply separates literary works from philosophical or technical writings, and thereby suggested a line of enquiry into the essence of poetic charm. Some may be disposed to challenge the view that the beauty which Vāmana sets forth as the ultimate test of poetry, is capable of realisation by a carefully worked-out diction. Nevertheless due credit must be given to him as he was the first known theorist to emphasise the proper disposition of word and sense and enquire into the flaws and excellences of expression. the facts of externalisation being, in his opinion, an important factor in every consideration of poetry. But since he conceived poetry from a decidedly formal point of view, his system and treatment had to go through the adverse criticism of the Dhyani and Post-dhyani theorists. who analysed the Rīti system and modified it in their more developed conception of poetry.

CHAPTER VII

RITI AND GUNA IN THE TREATMENT OF NON-ORTHODOX WRITERS

We have hitherto seen that Dandin and Vamana belonged to one of the orthodox schools of Poetics viz., the Rīti School. Each of them expounded in his own way the theory of Riti, as well as of the Gunas which, in their opinion, form the basis of the Rīti. But Dandin gave an elaborate treatment of both Gunas and Alamkaras, with such equal prominence that one might very reasonably doubt as to what school of opinion he really belonged. But we should remember that his Gunas constitute the essentials of a Riti par excellence whereas his Alamkāras are ordinary embellishments adorning all kinds of dictions. Thus, he appears to have agreed with Vāmana, although indirectly, regarding the place of Gunas and Alamkaras in poetry, and this ought to settle all doubts regarding Dandin's views about the superiority of one element to the other. But Vāmana's treatment was more direct and unequivocal. He boldly laid down that the Gunas form the basis of Rīti which is the soul of poetry. They constitute an inseparable attribute of poetry and therefore the most important element in it, while the other elements, namely, Rasa and Alamkāra remain subordinate to them.

We have also seen in passing that this theory of Rīti as well as of Guṇa as expounded by Daṇḍin and further developed by Vāmana was adversely criticised and modified by the Dhvani theorists who established the Concepts of Rasa and Dhvani as the most important

elements of poetry. We now propose to trace the development of the Riti and Guna theories as treated by writers like Kuntaka, Bhoja and the author of the Alainkara section of the Agnipurana all of whom stand apart from the orthodox schools of Sanskrit poetics, although acknowledging the inevitable influence of their predecessors belonging to these schools. Thus, Kuntaka elaborately expounds Bhāmaha's Theory of Vakrokti but his Vakrokti comprises under its wide scope almost all the poetic elements and not Alamkāra alone. Both Bhoja and the Purana-kara incorporate to a great extent' the views of their predecessors in their own treatment-sometimes even in expressions and phraseology, but none can be said to be a direct follower of the earlier orthodox system. It is possible that both of them are following some un-orthodox currents of thought; but since their treatment is sometimes individual and original and as we have lost all traces of previous un-orthodox speculations, if any, it is difficult to say what particular tradition they individually represent. These writers were, no doubt, cognisant of the various Concepts of Sanskrit poetics viz., Rīti-Guna-Alamkāra-Rasa and Dhvani analysed and established by orthodox speculation, but their conception and execution of these elements often differ from those of the orthodox writers and they (the elements) appear in a more or less modified form in the peculiar scheme of poetry of each of these writers.

I. For similarities between the treatments of Bhāmaha and the Agnipurāņa and of Daņdin and the Agnipurāņa see P. V. Kane's History of Alankāra Literature in his edition of the Sāhityadarpaņa; for Agnipurāņa and Bhoja see S. K. De's Sanskrit Poetics Vol. II, p. 262 and for Bhoja and Prakāśavarşa see S. K. De's article on 'The Rasārņavālamkāra of Prakāṣavarṣa in the I. H. Q. December, 1929.

A

KUNTAKA

The first of the known writers who have kept apart from the orthodox schools of Sanskrit Poetics is Kuntaka. author of the Vakroktijīvita. His main object has been, as the very name of his work would imply, to establish the essential importance of Vakrokti in his theory of poetry. We have already touched upon (p. 20, ch. II) the fact that the individual power of the poet plays the most important part in Kuntaka's Vakrokti and that for the formulation of this particular aspect in his conception of poetic beauty Kuntaka is indebted to Bhatta Tauta whose view he critically combines with the teachings of Bhāmaha in order to build up his theory of Vakrokti. He has thus developed in a way the teachings of earlier masters but the originality, with which he includes the poetic elements of the different orthodox systems in his comprehensive theory of Vakrokti, has made his position unique in the history of Sanskrit Poetics.

It has been seen that Guṇa and Alainkara, the technical poetic elements with which the earlier theorists were mainly concerned, have got the same origin inasmuch as they arose out of a mechanical analysis of the word and the sense and consequently served as the means of arriving only at the formal beauty of poetry. Its deeper aspects, viz., the beauty of suggestion, specially the delectability of Rasa, hardly flashed upon their minds. Some of the Pre-dhvani theorists, such as Daṇḍin and Vāmana, attempted at drawing a distinction between these two poetic elements, but they could not find out a clear-cut standard of this distinction. As a matter of fact, it was not possible for them to do it for whatever slight distinction could be sought, the fact remains that in the treatment of all theorists

from Bharata down to Vāmana, both these two elements, Guṇa and Alainkāra, have reference only to the arrangement of letters and words or to the formal ways of expressing a particular idea. Thus, when the fundamental characteristics of these two elements were not different, there was nothing to prevent certain Guṇas from being called Alainkāras and vice versa.

The standard of poetic beauty underwent a change with the advent of the Dhyani theorists who held that true poetry should be judged by its suggestiveness (dhvani) where something more charming is meant than what meets the ear. This inner meaning, which depends upon the reader's power of appreciation and comprises vastu, alamkāra and rasa, is distinctly different from the expressed sense (vācyārtha) which is subordinate to itself. Of these three kinds of suggestion their inclination is, really speaking, towards extolling the Rasa-dhyani alone. The disinterested joy that the reader derives on reading a poem, being completely absorbed in the situation depicted, is the real test of all good poetry: or more technically, true poetic charm lies in the successful delineation of Rasa, which ought to be the predominant factor in poetry and to which everything else should be subordinate. If, therefore, Rasa is taken to be the soul of poetry, in pursuance of the injunction of the Dhyani theorists, it is excellent as a theory—as an ideal of poetic beauty. But it has not always been possible for poets to maintain this high standard of perfection-to identify poetic beauty only with the aesthetic principle involved in the technical emotional element, Rasa. Such an injunction considerably narrows down the scope of poetry. The lucid, smooth and

pratīyamānam punar anyad eva | vastvasti vāņīşu mahākavīnām ||

melodious verses of Aśvaghoṣa and Kālidāsa, the grandeur and eloquence in some of the best writings of Bhavabhūti and Bāṇabhaṭṭa are invaluable treasure in Sanskrit literature. But it would be a futile task to try to explain their special charm always in terms of any technical Rasa enunciated by these theorists². Some of them may be instances of verbal poetic figures only, yet they serve to afford delight to the readers' mind while others fill the sense with a transcendental charm although they may not ordinarily satisfy the conditions for the perception of any of the technical Rasas.

Such a line of argument appears to have been favoured by Kuntaka who conceived that in capable hands even external beauty arising from a proper disposition of words and ideas serves to give delight to the reader although, at the same time, he fully realised the importance of the flow of pleasurable feelings brought forth by vivid representations in Rasa. He was a very sympathetic critic; he would appreciate whatever power a poet might display through his work. Any strikingness in utterance, any embellishment of

^{2 (}i) evam āha medhāvinam svāmī :—jānātyeva mānyah yathaikagotratā vā, samāna-jātitā vā, samam samvardhanam vā, ekadeša-nivāso vā, daršanābhyāso vā.....snehasya hetavah..... bhavantam antarenānyathā cānyathā cāyam cakravartī durjanair grāhita āsīt. na ca tat tathā. na santyeva te yeṣām satām api satām na vidyante mitrodāsīna-šatravah....salilānīva gatāgatikāni lolāni khalu bhavantyavivekinām manāmsi. bahumukha šravaṇanišcalīkrta-nišcayah kim karotu prthivī-patih (Harṣacarita ch. ii, p. 53)

⁽ii) ekātapatram jagataḥ prabhutvam navam vayaḥ kāntam idam vapuśca \ alpasya hetor bahu hātum icchan vicāramūḍhaḥ pratibhāsi me tvam \|

poetry, either internal or external, would give him poetic pleasure provided there is a certain manifestation This skill consists in the use of Vakrokti of skill which has been defined as vaidagdhya-bhangi-bhaniti (i, 10e-d) i.e. a striking mode of speech which charms by the peculiar turn imparted to it by the power of the poet's imagination. Kuntaka appears to hold that if the achievement of a transcendental delight is the only object of poetry, then the arrangement of letters, the jingling of sounds, the depth of sense and the vividness of the situation as a whole may serve equally to afford pleasure; for the peculiar turn of expression that the poets' genius produces is different from and far superior to the ordinary matter-of-fact speech which lacks the polish and grace of the poet's fancy. Poetry is a deviation from ordinary speech only by reason of the strikingness or the clever turn of expression given to it by the skill and fancy of the poet. Thus, by admitting that vakrokti, which in his theory is the very life of poetry, is the product of the poets' fancy, the ultimate emphasis is laid by Kuntaka upon kavivyāpāra (or the genius and skill of the poet) which alone determines the excellence of a poem. And in this position there is an ample justification for the very wide conception which he has taken of poetry, for the skill and poetic fancy of different poets work differently and it would be difficult to secure a uniform theory of poetic beauty among different writers' and from the view point of all different critics.

^{3.} This would partly explain why wide divergence of opinion has prevailed amongst the writers of Sanskrit Poetics over the question of the definition of poetry which aims at incorporating in a nutshell the essential features thereof. It is not at all unnatural that each orthodox school of Poetics, advocating as it does the importance of a particular

Of all the writers of Sanskrit Poetics Kuntaka appears to have been fully alive to this fact and this is why he has tried to explain his theory of poetry as broadly as possible, keeping himself free from the hard-and-fast technicalities of the orthodox schools, accepting them only so far as it was necessary for the sake of maintaining a continuity of the Sastra—harmonising his theory with the main teachings of the different schools of speculations and of securing for his work a definite place in the history of the discipline. In other words, he has formed a novel theory out of the existing systems⁴—a theory in which ample scope

poetic element, viz. Guṇa-Alamkāra or Rasa, should differ from the sister schools in its conception of poetic beauty. In other words, the conception about the essential features of poetry varies in the treatment of the different theorists and the student of Alamkārasāstra has never found a satisfactory definition of poetry, harmonising the teachings of the various schools. Leaving alone the question of the definition of poetry, the writers of the Alamkārasāstra themselves have had to work under a great disadvantage, namely, that they had to undertake a very difficult, nay, an impossible task of formulating some definite theories about the excellence of poetry which inevitably manifests itself in thousand and one ways according as it emanates from the pens of different writers and is reflected upon the minds of countless critics.

4. P. V. Kane's general remarks that "the Vakrokti school is really an off-shoot of the alamkāra school" (Introduction to his edition of Sāhityadarpaṇa, p. CLV) and the specific statement of Dr. De that "following the tradition of Bhāmaha's Vakrokti, Kuntaka develops a system of Vakrokti of his own" (Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II, p. 235) ought to be noted in this connection. Kuntaka has the advantage of one who speaks last of all—who gets an already created field to work upon and at the same time to make further valuable contributions with the power of his own genius. Bhāmaha's work bears proof of the inchoate nature of the Śāstra itself. But Kuntaka flourished at a period

has been preserved for the display of the poets' individual skill and ability and for the application of the critics' own power of judgment. This will be corroborated by some of his own remarks e.g. etaeca

when the Sastra had almost reached its final stage of development-when the Riti school had developed and declined-the Alamkāra school had made a considerable progress under Udbhata and Rudrata-and the Dhvani theorists had finally established the importance of the concepts of Rasa and Dhyani shadowing all earlier speculations. Bhāmaha, being an early adherent of the Alamkara school, in which the theoretic importance of Rasa had not been realised, conceived Vakrokti as a characteristic mode of expression underlying the poetic figures only. But Kuntaka, with a record of all the orthodox branches of poetic speculations before him, could conceive of Vakrokti from a considerably broader point of view not merely as the fundamental principle of the poetic figures (Alamkaras) only but as an all-encompassing poetic factor including within its wide scope the various concepts, namely, Rasa, Dhvani aid Alamkara advocated by the orthodox systems of thought, Regarding the implication of the term Vakrokti (which literally means 'crooked speech') as some peculiar and charming way of expression and the fact of some amount of atisava or a departure from ordinary speech being involved in it, there appears to be a general agreement in the treatments of Bhamaha and Kuntako. But while the former had not a word to speak by way of explaining the term Vakrokti as well as sahitya of word and sense which constitutes poetry in the opinion of both, the latter took great pains to explain the terms over some length (see meaning of the term Vakrokti and Kuntaka's theory of poetry in the introduction to Vakroktijivita) emphasising the ultimate importance of kavivyāpāra and tadvidāklādakāritva (i, 7 and i, 23). The real difference lies not so much in sense and spirit as in the sphere of Vakrokti which has been made enough comprehensive in the treatment of Kuntaka and to which the Rasadhvani theorists made no mean contribution. To Kuntaka, therefore, belongs the credit of harmonising his own views with the teachings of the different orthodox schools without himself being a follower of any one of them.

bhanitivaicitryain sahasraprakārain sambhavatīti svayam evotpreksanīyam (p. 62, ll. 13-14). pratipadam punaš chāyāvaicitryan sahrdayaih svayam evānusartavyam (p. 71, ll. 9-10) etc. These undoubtedly indicate that it has never been his presumption to formulate some binding principles for the guidance of poets and critics and to encompass in a nutshell poetic beauty in its entirety—but that he has merely shown in his own way how to grasp the charms of poetry, the full comprehension of which depends upon the individual skill and culture of critics. The most striking point of divergence between the treatment of Kuntaka on one hand and that of the adherents of the orthodox schools of Poetics on the other is this. The orthodox theorists established the essentiality of a particular poetic element (Rīti, Alamkāra or Dhvani) making others subordinate to it and thus broadly recognised only one aspect of poetry viz., either the external beauty arising out of a proper disposition of word and sense (as in the treatment of the Riti and Alamkāra theorists) or the charmingness of a suggested sense specially the aesthetic pleasure involved in Rasa. Kuntaka understood the importance of each of these elements as constituting a particular aspect of his allinclusive theory of Vakrokti. From an analysis of the principal varieties of Vakrokti⁵, it will be seen that in Kuntaka's comprehensive scheme of poetry poetic beauty was recognised in its manifold aspects. The formal beauty arising out of the juxtaposition of letters and the proper disposition of word and sense, the beauty of an unexpressed element as well as the delectability arising from the proper depiction of the emotional element, called Rasa, were equally recognised in his

^{5.} See Dr. S. K. De's introduction to THE VAKROKTI-JIVITA, pp. XXXI and XXXV and also Dr. A. Sankaran's 'Some-Aspects of Literary Criticism', p. 122.

theory. In other words, Kuntaka did not ignore the broad features involved in any of the fundamental Concepts of the orthodox schools of poetics nor did he recognise each for its own sake but he harmonised all of them in his peculiar conception of poetry, making them subordinate not to one or other of those orthodox poetic elements but to the comprehensive character of his theory of Vakrokti.

It is interesting to note that Kuntaka has never explicitly stated that Vakrokti is the life (jīvita) of poetry: but the prominence he has given to Vakrokti throughout his treatment leaves not a shadow of doubt that he regarded this particular poetic factor as the sine qua non of true poetry. This will be clear if we carefully consider his definition of poetry. Kuntaka defines poetry in three different ways, namely, (1) kaveh karma kāvyam (=The poets achievement...vṛtti under i, 2),

- (2) $s\bar{a}laink\bar{a}rasya~k\bar{a}vyat\bar{a}$ (Kāvya consists in ornamentation i, 6d) and
 - (3) sabdārthau sahitau vakra-kavi-vyāpārasālini bandhe vyavasthitau kāvyam tadvidāhlādakāriņi (i, 7)

Of these, the first two appear, at the first sight, to be merely general statements and the last to involve the technicality of Kuntaka's theory of poetry; but they jointly lead us to some important conclusions: These are:—

- (1) alamkāra is an essential factor in poetry,
- (2) it depends upon the individual power of the poet,

^{6.} We do not enter into the question as to whether these are definitions or mere descriptions of Karya. 14.7

- (3) it helps poetry to impart an unspeakable delight to the connoisseur's mind and it is for this that
- (4) it sharply distinguishes poetry from matter-of-fact speech.

Theorists of all ages and schools of poetic thought look upon śabda and artha as the two main pivots on which the theory of poetry revolves. Kuntaka is not an exception. Like his master Bhāmaha he holds that word and sense (śabdārthau) blended together (sahitau) constitute poetry ($k\bar{a}vyam$). The use of the expression sahitau ought to be noted in this connection. Kuntaka does not remark śabdārthau kāvyam apparently on two grounds: (1) There is hardly any word that does not bring a definite sense and (2) any and every word, whatever sense it might bring, does not create poetic charm. The real excellence of a poem, therefore, depends upon the sāhitua or the act of blending together the sound and the sense or more broadly the use of such expressions as would be exactly suitable to the sense which the poet aims at bringing out in order to produce the necessary poetic charm. The word and the sense are equally important; the true excellence lies in their organic presentation. In order to achieve the end of poetry there must be some amount of peculiarity in this sāhitya7 and we shall presently see that this peculiarity consists in the use of Vakrokti by which the poet serves to give delight to the connoisseur's mind (tadvidāhlādakāri) by imparting some liveliness to the composition (bandha) with the aid of his peculiar individual genius (vakra-kavi-vyāpara). It would appear,

^{7.} nanu ca vācya-sambandhasya vidyamānatvād etayor na kathañcid api sāhityavirahaḥ, salyam etat, kintu višiṣṭam eveha sāhityam abhipretam.

Vakroktijivita, vrtti under i, 7 (p. 10. ll. 17-19)

therefore, that in Kuntaka's third definition of poetry the clause vakra-kavi-vyāpārašālini tadvidāhlādakārini bandhe vyavasthitau may be generally taken to be an elucidation of sahitau for it is kavivyāpāra and tadvidāhlāda-kāritva which are of ultimate importance in blending together the sound and the sense. In other words, while selecting words in exact suitability to the sense intended, the poet displays his individual power with the sole object of imparting tadvidāhlāda-kāritva. The second definition emphasises embellishments (alamkāra) as an essential element of Kāvya. If the second and third definitions are read together, Kuntaka's theory appears to resolve itself into the position sālamkārau sabdārthau kāvuam. Thus arises the question of poetry and its relation to embellishments. In i, 2-5 Kuntaka lays down that the aim of poetic embellishments is to create a transcendental delight (lokottara-camatkārakāri-vaicitrya... i, 2a-b)—a view on which all writers of poetics appear to agree. In the next Kārikā⁶ he says that in order to understand the true character of poetry he is trying to analyse poetry (which is alainkārya) and its embellishments (alamkāra). Proceeding on with a detailed discussion about the sāhitya of śabda and artha he remarks in i. 10 that both the word and the sense are alamkārya (ubhāv etāv alamkāryau) i.e. they stand in need of embellishments and what embellishes them Vakrokti (tayoh punar alāmkrtir vakroktir eva) which he defines as vaidagdhya-bhangī-bhanitih or a speech (bhanitih) which is charming (bhangī) by reason of the skill of the poet (vaidagdhya). Then in the vrtti under i, 23 Kuntaka explains Vakrokti as alamkaranam which shows that the term alamkara as used by him in connection with poetry in general does not connote the

^{8.} alamkrtir alamkāryam apoddhrtva vivecyate! tadurāvatavā, tattvam sālamkārasya kāvya/ā [i, 6.

poetic figures but it is of a broader connotation: it is another name for the all-encompassing Vakrokti, the poetic figures constituting only one of the many varieties there-of, viz., vākya-vakratā (i. 20). Hence Vakrokti is the general name of all poetic embellishments and not merely of figures of Poetry. Now from Kuntaka's vrtti9 on i, 6 it would be clear that he cannot imagine a position in which poetry can be seen dissociated from its alamkāras. It is never possible to compose poetry first and add its embellishments afterwards. In other words, poetry must appear along with its alamkāras; whatever decoration the poet can impart to poetry must be done in course of blending together the sound and the sense. 10 It follows, therefore, that the term alainkāra in Kuntaka's second definition of poetry in i, 6 and the peculiarity involved in the sāhitya in the third definition in i, 7 tend to emphasise the same thing, namely, the essentiality of Vakrokti. And the scope of Vakrokti which is a kavivuāpāra is as wide as that of Kāyya itself (kaveh karma). Without Vakrokti, there is no charm of poetry. Vakrokti alone makes poetry what it is. It is the very life $(j\bar{\imath}vita)$ of poetry $(k\bar{\imath}vya)$.

If the poet's genius stands at the root of Vakrokti and, for the matter of that, of $k\bar{u}vya$ itself, then there would be infinite varieties of $k\bar{u}vya$. Kuntaka is fully

^{9.} tenālankrtasya kāvyatvam iti sthitih, na punah kavyasyālamkāra-yogah. (p. 7, 11. 3-4).

is a direct and logical development from the other two. The first one lays down that poetry is a product of the poet's genius; the second implies that Alamkāra or Vakrokti is an essential factor in kānya and he has already remarked in i, 2 that the aim of poetic decoration is to give transscendental delight (alaukika-camatkarakāri-vaicitrya) to the reader's mind. The third definition endows poetry exactly with these characteristics.

conscious of this fact but, doing away with all minor distinctions¹¹ he broadly enumerates only three varieties of Kāvya on the basis of the nature of poets viz., (1) svabhāva-sukumāra or naturally graceful (2) vicitra or artistic and (3) ubhavātmaka or an admixture of these two. He clearly indicates that all the three classes of poetry serve equally to afford pleasure to the reader: one is never inferior to any other in this respect. because each is a product of the poets' skill and consequently has a particular merit of its own 12. And in order to achieve success in one of these varieties of poetry the poet sets to work on a particular way of poetic speech which Kuntaka, following Dandin, calls Marga and which ought to be understood as being equivalent to Rīti of other writers. These Mārgas are called kari-prasthāna-hetarahi,24b or the modes of poetic practice. Three Margas have been classified. namely. Sukumāra, Vicitra and Madhyama Ubhavātmaka on the basis of the above three varieties of Kāvya. It will be seen later on that this distinction between the means and the end, namely, the Marga (path) and the Kāyya, is only theoretical and for all practical purposes they will be identical. In fact it may be said that the characteristics of the Kāyya itself have been attributed to the Marga by upacara.

Unlike the other poetic elements of the orthodox schools, namely, Alamkāra, Rasa and Dhyani, the two elements Rīti and Guṇa do not constitute a particular

^{11,} yadyapi kavisvabhāva-bheda-nibandhanatvād ananta-bheda-bhinnatvam anivāryam tathāpi parisamkhyātum asakyatvāt sāmānyena traividhyam evopapadyate. p. 47, ll. 3-5 (vṛtti on i, 24).

^{12.} tasmāde ṣām pratyekam ashhalita-sva-parispanda-mahimnā tadvid-āh/āda-kāritya-parisamāpler na kasyacin nyūnafā. Ibid. ll. 9-10.

variety of Vakrokti in Kuntaka's theory of poetry but they come in his treatment as a matter of course, for every poet takes recourse to one or other of the modes of poetic composition according to his own nature. Kuntaka has dealt with the Rīti from the common-sense point of view: unlike Vāmana and his school he does not regard it as the soul of poetry for the Marga or Rīti. the way or the mode, is theoretically only a means to an end and not the end itself. And when the two appear to be identical we must understand that a figurative use underlies such identification. Vāmana definitely looks upon the Rīti as an essential aspect of the Kāvya or the end itself and not as the way or the Marga through which one has to arrive at that end. Dandin has never explicitly stated what theoretical position he assigns to the Rīti in general but his conception of this poetic element as qirām mārgah or a particular way of poetic speech appears to be effectively appropriated in the treatments of Kuntaka and Bhoja (ii, 27).

The Dhyani theorists do not entertain the idea of Riti in poetry on the ground that it ultimately merges its identity into Rasa which they consider to be the soul of poetry. It is evident, therefore, that by the term Rīti they mean, following Vāmana, a definite arrangement of syllables and not Dandin's mode of poetic Kuntaka, who follows Dandin in his general conception of the Riti, naturally looks at it from a broader point of view. The theoretical position of his Rīti being "the way in which aspiring poets practise", it does not merge its identity into Rasa but on the contrary, when every one who undertakes to write poetry has to take recourse to one or other of the Margas, it is quite possible that all the poetic elements like Rasa, Dhyani, Guna and Alamkāra (which the poet has often to handle) should come within the scope of his treatment of the Marga.

Kuntaka criticises the names and classification of the Ritis as prevailing in the treatments of the Riti theorists. He does not entertain the idea that Ritis should be named after the localities in which they are said to flourish for in that case there would be no limit to the number of the Rītis inasmuch as there are innumerable localities where different Ritis may flourish.13 Nor does he admit that the composition of a poem can be regarded as a provincial custom like marrying one's cousin (mātuleya-bhaginī) for a custom often depends solely upon a tradition prevailing in a particular locality from time immemorial possibly due to a social convenience, whereas a poem must be a perfect product of the poet's genius, culture and practice.14 Kuntaka objects to the classification of Rītis into good, bad and middling on the ground that proper diction can be only one, namely, the best and think that if the classification has been sanctioned by uniform usage it would be wise to associate it with the names of different localities without reference to merit. 15

^{13.}cirantanair vidarbhādi-deša-višeṣa-samāsrayaṇena vaidarbhī-prabhṛtayo rītayas tisraḥ samāmnātāḥ, tāsām cottamādha-mamadhyamatva-vaicitryeṇa trawidhyam. anyais ca vaidarbha-gaudīyalahṣaṇam mārga-dvitayan ākhyātam. etaccobhayam apy ayukti-yuktam, yasmād deša-bheda-nibandhanatve rīti-bhedānām dešānām ānantyād asam'hyatvam prasayyate. p. 45, vṛtti on i, 24.

^{14.} na ca višista-vīti-yuktatvena kāvya-karaņam mātuleyabhaginī-vivāhavad deša dharmatajā vyavasthāpayitum sakyam. dešu-dharmo hi vrddha-vyavahāra-parampajā mātra-saraņah sakyānusthānatām nātivartate. tathā-vidha-kāvya-karaņam punah saktyādi-kārana-kalāpa-sākalyam apeksya (?) māņam na sakyate yathā-kathañcid anusthātum. Ibid.

^{15.} na ca rītīnām uttamādhama-madhyamatva-bhedena traividhyam vyavasthāpayitum nyāyyam....vaidarbhī-sadṛṣa-saundarya-sambhuvān madhyamādhamayor upadeša-varyarthyam āyāti.....tad evam nirvocana-samākhyā-mātra-karaṇatve deša-viṣṣāṣrayaṇasya na vayam vivadāmahe. p. 46, vṛtti on i, 24.

The true criterion for the mode of poetic composition, however, is, in Kuntaka's opinion, the nature and temperament of the poet. "Kavisvabhāva alone", as S. K. De remarks, 16 "furnishes the criterion for kaviprasthānahetu". Some writers are by their very nature competent to impart to their composition a spontaneous grace without any special effort and the poetry they compose belongs to the Sukumāra or naturally graceful variety. 17 This probably corresponds to the Vaidarbhi Rīti of the Rīti theorists. Kālidāsa (and possibly Aśvaghosa) who are masters of easy flowing verses and adepts in composing in a lucid and smooth style come under this class. There, are others who have got a natural tendency to compose in a decorative style, which is amply qualified to charm the reader although the spontaneous grace of the Sukumāra class of poets appears to lack in their composition. This is the Vicitra Marga corresponding to the Gaudi Rītī of the Rīti theorists. Bhayabhūti and Bhatta Bāṇa have been mentioned by Kuntaka to be past masters in the art of decorative style. There is still another class, the Mādhvama Mārga, where the composition is an admixture of the former two classes of poetry.

In the opinion of Kuntaka, therefore, poetry ought to be classified according to the genius (sakti), training (vyutpatti) and practice (abhyāsa) of different writers. Of these again sakti or for the matter of that, svabhāva is the most prominent factor for it prompts a poet to follow that particular track in which his culture and practice bring into play his inborn quality, facilitate the scope of his work and help him to achieve success.

^{16.} Introduction to V. J. p. xxxiii.

^{17.} sukumāra-svabhāvasya kaves tathāvidhaiva sahajā saktih samudbhavati.....tayā ca tathā-vidha-saukumārya-ramanīyām vyutpattim ābadhuāti. tābhyām ca sukumāra-vartmanābhyāsa-tatparah kriyate. p. 46. Vṛtti. on i, 24.

next goes on to discuss in detail the characteristics of each Marga and the Gunas attached to it. The Sukumāra Mārga implies a natural grace and a serene charm prevailing throughout the composition (saukumārva-parispanda-svandi vatra virājate i. 28c-d). which must be free from all external or artificial decora-The charm with which it imbues the readers' mind flows directly from the inmost recess of the poet's heart (yat kiñcanāpi vaicitryain tat sarvain pratibhodbhavam i, 28a-b) so that the reader plunges himself in an atmosphere of lucidity and transparency; he is in direct communion with all the wealth of the poets' inborn power. The style is smooth and limpid, plain but lively. The charming expressions that the poet uses are wellmatched to the ideas (nava-śabdārtha-bandhurah, i, 25b) and they emanate spontaneously without the least exertion on his part. Figurative expressions are very seldom used and even when they are present, they do not appear as external factors, they fit in aptly with the context in which they are found and make the situation depicted vividly felt (ayatna-vihita-svalpa-manohārimore vibhūsanah i, 25c-d). To illustrate this Kuntaka cites (pp. 49-50) the verse:

bālendu-vakrāny avikāśabhāvād babhuḥ palāśāny atilohitāni sadyo vasantena samāgatānām nakhakṣatānīva vanasthalīnām s

Kumārasambhava iii, 29.

from a context where the spring season is being described. Thus the epithets bālenduvakrāni, atilohitāni and sadyo vasantena samāgatānām belong to the objects of nature, namely, palāšāni and vanasthalīnām, yet in this particular context the association of the human attribute nakha-kṣata with vanasthalī has not at all been out of place, on the contrary, the poetic figure

utpreksā involved in nakhaksatānīva has considerably added to the vividness of the situation. Kuntaka further emphasises in this Marga the prominence of the natural characteristics of all objects as seen through the poets' eve and appear to hold that a successful delineation of the svabhāva of objects affords greater charm than extraneous ornamentation conferred by the poets' training and practice (bhāva-svabhāva-prādhānyanuakkrtāhārua-kauśalah....i. 26a-b). In Kuntaka's opinion, genius, (śakti or svabhāva) being itself the ingrained quality of the poet, it is better suited to portray the svabhava of objects than depicting a situation where ornamentation plays a prominent part for this latter depends not only upon the genius of the poet but also upon some amount of culture and practice. This Sukumāra Mārga is all the more charming because the poet successfully depicts and creates a situation as a result of which the reader feels a thrill of pleasure (rasādi-paramārtha-iña-manahsainvāda-sundarah i, 26cd) but he is so lost in the atmosphere that he can never account for the transcendental delight he achieves (aribhāvita-samsthāna-rāmanīvaka-raniakah. i. 27a-b). The poets' art is by its very nature as abstruse as the creation of the creator which fascinates the beholder but does not enable him to understand the skill which produces it18 (vidhi-vaidagdhya-nispanna-nirmāṇātiśayopamah. i, 27c-d). Some external elements, namely, the bee and its forest tract, have been brought in just to show the inherent grace of the Sukumārā Mārga. Just as the wild flowers grow and blossom without any human care and supply the bees with nectar, so the Sukumāra Mārga or more correctly its corresponding

^{18.} It is worthy of mention here that critics like Mammata take the poets' art as being *niyati-kṛta-niyama-rahita*. It is even better than the creation of the creator.

class of poetry is composed without any special efforts on the part of the poet whose genius works absolutely unaided by any artificial training. It is thus seen that the Sukumāra Mārga (i) demands an all-round natural grace due to the full play of the poets' genius, (ii) leaves alone all artificial decorations possible only to wide culture and practice, (iii) lays emphasis upon the portrayal of the svabhāva of objects and (iv) regards the depiction of Rasa as a very important factor so as to create situations with which the capable reader finds it easy to identify himself without much previous training and to make them as it were, a part and parcel of his own experience.

The Guṇas have been treated along with the Mārga to which they belong. A group of four Guṇas of the same name but with different characteristics has been attached to each of the Sukumāra and Vicitra Mārgas. These are Mādhurya, Prasāda, Lāvaṇya and Ābhijātya. Two other Guṇas namely, Aucitya and Saubhāgya, are said to be present in all compositions. The characteristics of the Guṇas are in conformity with those of the Mārgas to which they belong. In other words, the main features of all the Guṇas of a particular Mārga taken together should be, in Kuntaka's opinion, favourable to the characteristics of the Mārga itself.²⁰ Accordingly in the Sukumāra Mārga, the Guṇas have been thus characterised.

(1) MADHURYA²¹—a proper disposition of charming expression is the remarkable characteristic of this

^{19.} sukumārābhidhaḥ so 'yam yena satkavayo gatāḥ | mārgenotphulla-kusuma-kānaneneva satpadāḥ \(\mathbb{i}\) i, 29.

^{20.} mārgesu guņānām samudāya-dharmatā (p. 71, l. 20)

^{21.} Kuntaka explains under i, 33 that although Mādhurya and Prasāda are really speaking, the properties of molasses,

excellence. The expressions should preferably be free from compound words (asamasta-manohūri-pada-vinyāsa-jīvitam. i, 30a-b) and must be arranged in a way that they may serve to give delight to the readers' ear and mind. (śrutiramyatvena artharamanīyatvena ca hṛdayā-hlādakāni. Vṛtti on i, 30). It should be noted that the characteristic features śruti-ramyatva and artha-ramanīyatva tend to make Kuntaka's Mādhurya (Sukumāra Mārga) equivalent to Daṇḍin's Guṇa of the same name in its two-fold aspect.

(2) PRASĀDA—This excellence resides where the meaning of the words and, for the matter of that, the intention of the speaker is quickly understood without any difficulty and where Rasa and Vakrokti are playing an important part.²² The ease of comprehension is due, Kuntaka thinks, to paucity of compound words (padānām asamastatvam), the use of well-known epithets (prasiddhābhidhānatvam), directness of association amongst the words used (avyavahita-sambandhatvam) and absence of difficulty in understanding the connection of words if

water or crystal yet they can be taken to be kāvyadharma by upacāra or transference, the motive of the transference being to establish the character respectively of delighting the reader (āhlādakāritva) and of shining clearly (sphuṭāvabhāsitva). Similarly in the case of Lāvanya and Ābhijātya, the motives are fascinating the mind of the reader (cetanacamatkāritva) and the characteristic of possessing a natural grace respectively.

22. akleśa-vyanjitākūtam jhagityartha samarpanam | rasa-vakrokti-viṣayam yat prasādah sa kathyate || ii, 31.

It will appear from Kuntaka's exposition vakroktih sakalālamkāra-sāmānyam) that the term Vakrokti as used here is only a symbol for poetic figures and it is idle to read in it its usual all-encompassing character for when it has been already enjoined that no poetry is charming without Vakrokti, there is no point in advocating its presence in connection with a particular Guna.

and when compounded (samāsa-sadbhāve'pi gamaka-samā-sa-yuktatā). It is interesting to note that almost all writers of poetics agree with regard to the one important character of Prasāda, namely, ease of comprehension whatever it may be due to.

- (8) LĀVAŅYA—consists in the beauty of structure arising as a total effect out of a proper disposition of charming words and syllables ^{2 3}.
- (4) ĀBHIJĀTYA—is a natural grace belonging to the composition (svabhāva-māsrnacchāyam. i, 33b) which regales the ear (śruti-peśalatā-śūli. i, 33a) and at the same time enraptures the heart (susparśam iva cetasā. i, 33b). This Guṇa, therefore, combines within it the rare character of giving the reader both mental and sensuous delight. Thus the verse,

jyotir-lekhā-valayi galitam yasya varham bhavānī i puttra-prītyā kuvalaya-dala-prāpi karņe karoti i

23. varna-vinyāsa-vicchitti-pada-sandhānā-sampadā | svalpayā bandha-saundaryam lāvanyam abhidhīyate | i, j

The indispensable relationship of this particular Guna Lāvaṇya with word-structure (bandha) ought not to be lost sight of. In i, 22 Kuntaka has demanded the presence of two qualities, namely, Lāvaṇya and Saubhāgya in bandha or structure which has been defined thus:—

vācya-vācaka-saubhāgya-lavanya pariposatah | vyāpārasālī vākyasya vinyāso bandha ucyate ||

Here too, the excellence has been identified with beauty of structure (bandha-saundarya). An analogy of word-structure with the human body appears to underly Kuntaka's conception of this particular Guna. The charmingness belonging to every word and syllable contributes to the beauty of the composition as a whole just as the neat delicacy of every particular limb of the human frame gives rise, as a total effect, to a profound but unspeakable grace that reigns supreme over the beauty of the particular limbs.

Cited as an illustration from the Meghadūta, i, 44 regales the ear of the reader by presenting a jingling of sounds in the form of the alliteration of the several syllables t, r, l, k and p and at the same time the life-like picture of the Goddess wearing the bright plumes of the peacock on her ear brings a flood of delight to his mind.

The Vicitra Mārga, according to Kuntaka's opinion, is very difficult to travel on (ati-duhsañcarah...i, 43a) and very few learned poets could compose the Vicitra or artistic variety of poems. This Marga has been compared to a road strewn with the edges of swords (khadgadhārāpatha, i. 43c) which is taken only by brave heroes. This suggests, as Kuntaka himself holds, that this class of composition is extremely difficult to handle and those, who venture to take recourse to it, certainly possess the necessary power arising from wide culture and practice (tad anena mārgasya durgamatvain tatprasthitānāin ca viharana-praudhih pratipādyate p. 58, ll. 8-9). In this Marga the word and its sense appear to be endowed with a certain vakratā even in the first expressions of a poet's genius, i. e. before it has had the advantage of being backed by training in his art (pratibhā-prathamodbheda-samaye. i, 34a). Here, the poet has such a fondness for the use of poetic figures that he is not satisfied unless he can file one Alamkara upon another like the setting of jewels at intervals in a necklace24. One of the verses which Kuntaka cites as illustrating this character of the Vicitra-Marga is:

nāmāpyanya-taror nimīlitam abhūt tat tāvad
unmīlitam ı
prasthāne skhalataḥ sva-vartmani vidher anyair
gṛhītaḥ karaḥ #

alamkārasya kavayo yatrālamkaranāntaram | asantuṣṭā nibadhnanti hārāder maṇi-bandhavat | i, 35.

lokaś cāyam-adṛṣṭa-darśana-kṛtā dṛg-vaiśasād uddhṛto t yuktam kāṣṭhika lūnavān yad asi tām āmrālim ākālikīm s

V. J. pp. 59-60, cited also in Subhāṣitāvalī, No. 1017. This verse brings two distinct ideas—one expressed

and another unexpressed. The ultimate object of the speaker is to condemn a man who is hazarding much to gain a trivial object. This is the suggested idea which arises from the one expressed, namely, censuring the woodman for the wrong course of action he has taken in cutting down a mango tree that bears fruit out of season (which is certainly a rare and therefore coveted object). Thus the suggested sense here involves the figure Aprastuta-praśainsā where the matter in context (prastuta) is arrived at from one foreign to it. But the peculiarity of the poets' skill in this verse lies in the fact that even the expressed sense itself, namely, condemnation of the woodcutter, has been arrived at not directly but through another figurative expression, namely, Vyāja-stuti where there is seen apparent praise for the object that is really desired to be condemned and vice versa. Though in this particular instance, the intention of the speaker is clearly to censure the woodman, it does not seem so from the expressions used; on the contrary, there is a garb of admiration for the woodcutter who has been apparently depicted to be invested with the credit of conferring great benefit upon all concerned by extirpating the mango tree which was alleged to have (1) overlapped other trees (2) checked the free course of the sun's rays and (3) obstructed the sight of the horizon. Thus, the expressed Alamkāra Vyāja-stuti may be taken to have heightened the charm involved in the suggested Alamkara Aprastuta-praśamsā. Kuntaka also remarks in connection

with the position of poetic figures in this Marga that they shine so conspicuously by themselves (bhrājamānair nijātmanā, i, 37b) that they appear to render the ideas. which they adorn, subordinate to them just as the outstanding glory of the rays of gems serve to decorate the body of ladies even casting their natural beauty into the background. In fact, it is the Alamkaras which make up the reason why the alamkārua (the word and its sense) that has been rendered subordinate to it (sva-sobhā'tisayāntahstham. i, 37c) should come to light (prakāśvate. i, 37d). This amounts to saying that the alainkārua is so much overshadowed by its embellishments that the former seems to have no separate existence except when it appears along with the latter 25. illustrations katamah pravijembhita-virahavyathah śūnyatām nīto desah and kāni ca punyabhānji bhajantyabhi-

^{25.} We would do well to recollect here Kuntaka's dictum alankrtasya kavyatvam iti sthitih etc. (quoted in fn. 9). That being Kuntaka's conception of poetry-it is easy to understand that the Alamkara (vakya-vakrata) aspect of Vakrokti is all-in-all in the artistic variety of his conception of poetry (Vicitra Marga). Rasa and Dhvani occupy a definite place in the Vicitra Marga no doubt but we should not forget that they do not belong exclusively to this Marga inasmuch as there is scope for them in the Sukumara Marga too. What really counts in this Marga is, therefore, the exuberance of poetic figures before which the svarūpa or svabhāva of objects dwindles into insignificance. āhārya-kavi-kauśala or the product of the poets' culture functions more prominently than sahaja-kavi-kausala or the product of the poets' genius. In fact, the poets' genius works behind all classes of poetry but whereas the Sukumāra (plain or artless) scyle emanates exclusively from the inborn resources of the poet and as such it appeals to the capable reader without any difficulty, the Vicitra or decorative style abounds in ornamentations and naturally it presupposes a certain amount of culture both on the part of the poet and the connoisseur. This is the most important point of distinction between the Sukumāra and the Vicitra Mārgas.

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khyām aksarāni (p. 61 V. J.) cited from the Harsacarita (ch. i. p. 25) will show that the Alamkara (Aprastutapraśamsā) alone imparts to the sentences in question whatever charm they possess. Otherwise their plain meanings in the form of the enquiries whence do you come?' and 'what is your name?' would have been a matter-of-fact speech devoid of all poetry. A strikingness in the speech (uktivaicitryamātra i. 38c) imparts an excellent charm even to an object which is stale and tasteless (yad apy anūtanollekham i, 38a). A free play of the poets genius (pratibhollekha-mahattvena i, 39 c-d) enables him to conceive according to his sweet will, a certain object in a different way from what it really represents. In fact, this is the only principle underlying the Vicitra Marga, nay, poetical composition itself26.

The true skill of a poet lies in his power of conception and depiction. Poetry is poetry because the poets' skill endows even a fact of common experience with a fascinating garb so that it enraptures the reader's heart. We have seen that Kuntaka's Vicitra Mārga demands a considerable amount of artistic decoration (vaicitrya or atisaya) but it is also worth remembering that some amount of atisaya prevails throughout his theory of poetry. Even in the Sukumāra Mārga where prominence is given to the svabhāva of things there is some scope of this factor for "the poet, as any true artist, sees or conceives the very same thing not in the same way as the common people²⁷". A description of the svabhāva of objects charms us only because we see it through the

^{26.} We ought to read in this connection the memorable verse of the Agnipurana:

apāre kāvyasamsāre kavir eva prajāpatiķ 1

yathāvai (smai?) rocate visvam tathedam parivartate 1

^{27.} S. K. De. Introduction to V. J. p. XIX, fn. 19.

poet's eye. The Vicitra Mārga has been further characterised as possessing an unexpressed sense beyond the expressive word and the expressed idea (vācya-vācaka-vṛttibhyām vyatiriktasya vākyārthasya, i, 40). It also depicts (badhyate) the nature of objects as full of emotional intentions (svabhāvah sarasākūtah, i, 41a) stimulated by superior skill on the part of the poet. In short, all phases of striking embellishments are conspicuously present in this Mārga and some indescribable artistic excellence prevails throughout (kenāpi kamanīyena vaicitryenopabṛmhitah i, 41c-d).

It will be clear from the above that wide scope has been preserved in this Marga for the poets' depiction of Rasa, Dhyani and particularly Alamkara. The first four verses, i. 34-37 discuss the important part which the figures of poetry play in this Marga. Verses i, 40-41 determine the place of Dhvani and Rasa respectively. From what can be gleaned from the character of Dhyani and Rasa here, it appears that Kuntaka does not differ fundamentally from the Dhyani theorists in his conception of these two elements. To the process of abhivyakti he explicitly agrees as will be clear from his remarks: -tad-atirikta-vrtter anyasya vuangua-bhūtasyā-bhivyaktih kriyate (p. 64, 11. 7-8). And last of all Kuntaka appears to admit in i, 38-39 and i. 42 that sometimes the beauty of a poem may not be explained in terms of Rasa, Dhvani or any poetic figure but the fact remains that the poem imparts a profound delight to the reader's mind. This, Kuntaka thinks, is due to the peculiar power of the poets' skill which he calls ukti-vaicitrya and vakrokti-vaicitrya. This vakrokti-vaicitrya, as we have previously seen, runs throughout all poetic compositions but it is better felt when the beauty of the composition cannot be explained in terms of any of the orthodox poetic elements.

The four Gunas, which belong to the Vicitra Mārga, have been thus characterised:—

- (1) MĀDHURYA—being itself free from looseness²⁸ (tyakta-śaithilyam i, 44c), it contributes to the charmingness of diction (bandha-bandhuratāngatām yāti i, 44d) and displays a certain amount of the poets' peculiar skill (vaidagdhya-syandi i, 44a).
- (2) PRASADA—It has been defined in two different verses. The first verse appears to be a curious blending of two contradictory characteristics be a curious blending of two contradictory characteristics be manuly, this excellence consists of uncompounded expressions (perhaps to ensure a quick grasp of the sense) as well as some amount of compactness ojah spršan—uttānatayā vyavasthitah) which he attributes to the presence of compound words (ojasah samāsavatī vṛttih...vṛtti on i, 45, p. 66). The second definition implies ease of comprehensions due to the close connection between sentences just like the association between the words.

It will be seen, therefore, that there is very slight distinction between the different aspects of the Prasāda as found in the two Mārgas. The characteristics involved in both of the verses here are almost equivalent to those enumerated in the vṛtti under i, 31, in connection with the Sukumāra Mārga. Kuntaka himself explicitly lays down that Prasāda as found in the first verse in Vicitra Mārga is almost the same as that in the Sukumāra Mārga, a touch of Ojas or compactness of

^{28.} This corresponds partly to Dandin's Śleşa.

asamasta-pada-nyāsaḥ prasiddhaḥ kavi-vartmani |
 kiñcid ojaḥ spṛśan prāyaḥ pradsādo 'pyatra dṛṣyute |

i, 45.

^{30.} gamakāni nibadhyante vākye vākyāntarāny api | padānīvātra ko'pyeṣa prasādasyāparah kramah |

structure due to the presence of compounds words being only an additional characteristic here (pūrvasmin prasāda-lakṣaṇe saty ojaḥṣaṁsparśamātram iha vidhīyate p. 67).

- (3) LĀVAŅYA—is conspicuously present where the words (padaiħ) which are made up of short and long (due to their being immediately previous to some conjunct) syllables (hrasvaiħ saṁyogpūrvaiśca, i, 47c), do not drop the visargas (alupta-visargāntaiħ i, 47a) but are closely connected with one another (protaiħ parasparam i, 47b).
- (4) ĀBHIJĀTYA—is found where the composition is neither too soft (nāti-komaluechāyam, i, 48a) nor too harsh (nāti-kāṭhinyam udvahat, i, 48b) but it is charming by reason of the profound skill of the poet (prauḍhinirmitam, i, 48d).

Kuntaka remarks that the Guṇas attached to the Vicitra Mārga are practically not much different in character from those of the Sukumāra Mārga. On the other hand, these are the selfsame Guṇas with some additional characteristics such as have naturally crept in on account of the emphasis laid upon the poets' āhārya-kauśala. But judging independently, it is difficult to see how excepting Prāsada (which may somehow be taken to have developed from the character of the same Guṇa as attributed by Kuntaka in the vṛtti under i, 31), the other Guṇas of the Vicitra Mārga have any likeness with the corresponding Guṇas of the Sukumāra Mārga unless it is conceded that (i) the

^{31.} For a comparative study of the Gunas in the two Margas, Haradatta Sarma's paper on 'Kuntaka's Conception of Gunas' in I. H. Q. June, 1932, p. 265.

^{32.} evam sukumāra-vihitānām eva guņānām vicitre kascid atisayah sampādyata iti boddhavyam (p. 69).

characteristics of Lāvaṇya as shown in i, 47 (Vicitra Mārga) illustrate the aspects $varṇa-viny\bar{u}sa-vicchitti$ and $pada-sandh\bar{u}nasampat$ as referred to in i, 32 (Sukumāra Mārga), (ii) the character of Ābhijātya as found in the first two feet of i, 48 (Vicitra) illustrate the śrutipeśalatā referred to in i, 33 and (iii) the epithet praudhi-nirmitam in i, 48 stands in contrast with srabhāva-masrṇacchāyam in i, 33 because the one demands the poets' āhārya kauśala and the other sahaja.

The Madhyama Mārga, as we have already seen. is an admixture of the other two Margas. Here, both the poets' natural skill and the power of his artistic ornamentation shine equally (sahajāhārya-śobhā'tiśayaśālinau i, 49c-d). All the charms that are derived from the two extreme types of poetry vie with one another in this type (spardhayā yatra vartante mārga-dvitayasampadah...i, 51c-d) and it is equally attractive to readers of all tastes (nānāruci-manoharah i, 51b). All the Gunas like Mādhurya and others manifest their two-fold character (as found in the extreme Margas) and consequently enhance the structural excellence. Those who want to maintain a high standard of poetic beauty in which a natural grace as well as the art of decoration should equally thrive, take a special delight in this mode of poetic speech like a gallant fellow who practises a neat toilet33.

^{33.} atrārocakinah kecicchāyā-vaicitrya-rañjake | vidagdha-nepathya vidhau bhujangā iva sādarāh | | i, 52.

arocakinah literally means 'the discontented'. The simile has been very suitable here. Just as a gallant fellow frequently changes his toilet, tests this and that till he thinks himself to be properly dressed, the discontented writer also cannot rest satisfied with a particular kind of composition. His very nature prompts him to follow whatever he finds convenient for him, it being understood, that he possesses the necessary power to adopt both the modes of poetic speech according to his sweet will,

Besides the group of four Guṇas characterising the Sukumāra and the Vicitra Mārgas, Kuntaka enumerates two other Guṇas, namely, AUCITYA and SAUBHĀGYA which, in his opinion, should be present in all compositions. They are common to the three Mārgas.

(i) AUCITYA or propriety is the striking expression in which the excellence of an object is rightly depicted. To observe propriety is an essential factor in describing any object and, as a matter of fact, without it the poets' art fails to impart charm.

In the verse:

upagiri puruhūtasyaiṣa senāniveśas taṭam aparam it'odres tvad-balūny ūvasantu | dhruvam iha kariṇas te durdharūḥ sannikarṣe sura-gaja-mada-lekhū-saurabhain na kṣamante || V. J. p. 72.

the speaker wants to express the Majesty of the king concerned and this has been done in a fitting way by the figure Vyatireka which does not really establish the superiority of the king to Indra but describes his Majestic glory. Hence, the atisaya involved in the figure Vyatireka has not been taken recourse to for its own sake but merely to observe the propriety in describing the king's glory.

Aucitya has been further defined as that quality where the object of description is overshadowed, as it were, by the excellent or superior character of the speaker or the person spoken to³⁵. It consists in imparting such peculiarity to the matter of discourse as may appear

^{34.} ānjasena svabhāvasya mahattvam yena posyate | prakāreņa tad aucityam ucitākhyāna-jīvitam || i, 53.

^{35,} yatra vaktuh pramātur vā vācyam sobhā'tisāyinā | ācchādyate svabhāvena tad app aucityam ucvate | i, 54.

to be in full conformity with the character of the speaker or of the person spoken to. In the verse,

śarīra-mātreņa narendra tiṣṭhannābhāsi tīrtha-pratipāditarddhiḥ \" āraṇyakopātta-phala-prasūtiḥ \ stambena nīvāra irāvaśiṣṭaḥ \"

V. J. p. 73 cited from Raghuvamsa V, 15.

the speaker is the sage Kautsa and consequently the comparison of king Raghu (who has completely exhausted his wealth) with the stalk (from which the corn has been taken by the sages) is very apt in his mouth. In fact Raghu's comparison with anything else would have been out of place under the circumstances described. necessary to bear in mind that the Dhyani theorists judge the importance of aucitya in connection with Rasa alone. They frame some binding rules for the observance of aucitya or propriety so that the poet is not free to write anything he likes but he must carefully consider the situation that he wants depict and anything that is likely to prove detrimental to it must be rigorously abandoned. Thus arises the necessity of regulating the character of the vaktr, the vacya, the Lava, vibhava and anubhava etc., in conformity with Rasa which the poet wants to depict. Any violation of the rule of propriety gives rise to a violation of Rasa (ne-bhanga) or (rasābhāsa) and therefore scredited by all means. Even the style of composition mus e in harmony with the nature of the subject. Ksemend was so much impressed with the necessity of the observe of propriety that he wrote a separate book, the Auch vicāra-carceā, in which he

^{36.} anaucityād rte nānyad ras prasiddhaucitya-bandhas tu na spanisat parā | Quoted in the wayāloka, p. 145.

boldly laid down that *aucitya* is the very soul of poetry. Although Kuntaka's definition of *aucitya* is not very precise, yet he has maintained its all-important character by regarding it as an excellence present in all the varieties of $k\bar{a}vya$.

(ii) SAUBHĀGYA—has been defined under i, 22 as pratibhā-samrambha-phalabhūtam cetana-camatkūri-tvalakṣaṇam—the quality of giving a peculiar delight to the mind as a result of the full play of the poets' power. In i, 55 the same thing is meant although in an abbreviated form³⁷. In the next verse Kuntaka, remarks that this Guṇa results from the poets' knowledge of all the resources of good composition and as such it is an essential factor in poetry.

It will appear from the above although Kuntaka treats of the Gunas in connection with Riti or Marga, he does not restrict them to that element alone as has been done by the Riti theorists. In fact, his conception of Riti itself is much wider than that of Vāmana. Thus, he enumerates three Ritis corresponding to the three distant varieties of kāvya, classified on the basis of the poets' śakti, vyutpatti and abhyāsa. Vakrokti, which, in his opinion, is the very life of poetry, naturally predominates in all the varieties of $k\bar{a}vya$ and for the matter of that . all the Margas or Rītis. Vakrokti, in its turn, ha oeen classified into six different varieties, including ...thin its wide scope all the important poetic eler its of the orthodox schools vix Rasa, Dhavan, and Alamkāra. It follows, therefore, that all the relements (Rasa, attach themselves to Dhyani and Alainkāra) cannot b one or other of Kuntaka's of the orthodox theorists. in conflict with that of

^{37.}yadart, pratibhā kaveh | saubhāgyam ucyate | samvek

Kuntaka does not appear to have observed any theoretical distinction between the different elements of kāvya as such and considering the all-important character of his theory of Vakrokti, it is idle to expect him to have drawn such a clear-cut distinction. Thus, āhārya-śobhā which is the characteristic feature of the Vicitra Marga depends mostly upon the employment of poetic figures or Alamkāras. Dhyani and Rasa are elements which have unhampered scope in all the Mārgas. The Guna Prasāda as belonging to the Sukumāra Mārga has been defined in terms of Rasa and Vakrokti. The Gunas, Saubhāgya and Aucitya, are said to be present in all compositions irrespective of the fact that they contain Rasa or Dhyani. These are facts which will bring home to us the futility of looking for a clear-cut distinction between one poetic element and another in the treatment of Kuntaka. He has never ignored the othodox elements. On the contrary, he has recognised them whenever they came in his way but at the same time he is very particular not to establish the superiority of one over the others. So long as the different poetic elements of the orthodox schools constitute a particular aspect of his theory of Vakrokti, they all stand on the same level—one is never superior to the others. In his opinion beauty is beauty; it ought to be judged in its entirety. You may call the decorating element of the kāvya a Guna or an Alamkāra, that is not of essential importance.

It is also worth mentioning that Kuntaka has tried to keep his Guṇas generally free all touch of minor technicalities. He has attributed to them broad characteristics as far as possible and has enumerated only a few of them, leaving it for the readers to judge for themselves the various poetic excellences which the poet might display. He characterises the Guṇas as chāyāvaicitrya (p. 71) or striking varieties of poetic beauty. He appears

to hold that by the term guṇa we should understand 'excellence' which is the usual connotation of the word. In the theory of poetry we should mean by it 'poetic excellence' which inevitably varies according to the fancy and imagination for different poets and the taste and power of appreciation of the readers. It does not brook rigid definition or hard-and-fast and stereotyped classification. The merit of a poem depends entirely on the individual power and skill of the poet concerned. Kuntaka himself has clearly remarked na punah sākalyena sat-kavi-kausala-prakārāṇām kenacid api svarūpam abhidhātum pāryate (p. 71).

We should note here that with all his attempts at demonstrating this fundamental fact with regard to the standards of poetics. Kuntaka's characterisation of the Gunas and for the matter of that of the theory of poetry itself lacks precision. We have already seen that it is difficult to understand how the second set of his Gunas belonging to the Vicitra Mārga is a direct development from the first set. And even the individual Gunas do not always bring a definite idea of the characteristics they represent. It is sometimes difficult to distinguish a particular Guna from another in the same Mārga. For instance, in Sukumāra Mārga, the Guna Ābhijātva serves equally to regale the ear and enrapture the heart of the reader and as such it is not theoretically different from Madhurya where the word structure possesses, amongst other characteristics. śruti-ramyatva and artha-ramanīyatva. Then again, in both the Gunas Mādhurya and Lāvanya are involved the beauty of word-structure and the charm it affords, one would like to understand wherein the beauty of structure lies and in what different ways the two Gunas work so as to delight the reader. The sweet and melodious verses which embody the kārikās and the grand literary style of the *vṛtti* which contains an exposition of them do not always help the reader to form any definite impression except that Kuntaka combines in him the rare qualities both of a critic and of a poet. He has of course, spared no pains to form a definite and unique theory of poetry. Yet his theory has remained indefinite to his readers.

But this is not the fault of Kuntaka alone. If his theory is indefinite, the treatment of some of the writers of the orthodox schools is equally mechanical and confusing. The earlier theorists, in their attempt at precision, had made their treatment narrow and too much mechanical (as will be partly evident from the individual Gunas of Vāmana and Dandin). Kuntaka, while trying to keep himself free from such narrowness and to form a comprehensive theory of poetic beauty, has allowed himself to be drawn into grandiloquent expressions and vague generalisations. The exposition of the Dhyani theorists, in spite of their attempts to explain the deeper aspects of poetry, is sometimes so confusing that the student of the Alamkara-sastra finds himself puzzled when he is lost in the ten thousand four hundred and fifty five varieties of Dhvani and the divisions and subdivisions of Utpreksā. 38 We must not forget that in the treatment of one who, on principle, keeps an eye on the scope of individual power, some amount of vagueness and lack of precision is bound to come in just as, on the contrary an attempt at precision inevitably shuts out the scope of broad generalisation. It is, therefore, fair to admit that each theorist has formulated his theory in the best possible way he could and we shall be easily reconciled to all minor defects of every writer if we remember a plain but indisputable fact that

^{38.} cf Kāvyaprakāśa, sūtra 65, ch. IV. and Sāhityadarpaņa. (Kars 686-91) ch. X. respectively.

the writers of the Alamkara-sastra undertook the difficult, nay, impossible, task of formulating a definite theory about something which is by its very nature indefinable. It may be safely asserted, therefore, that the defects spoken of do not greatly minimise the importance of Kuntaka's treatment. On the other hand, due credit must be paid to him for being the only writer in the whole range of Alamkara literature to have touched upon the element of individuality in poetic composition -a question altogether ignored by the orthodox theorists. But the sturdy independence, which prompted him to formulate a novel theory of Poetics without adhering to the teachings of the orthodox schools, was responsible for his failure to attract any following in the later history of the discipline.

В

BHOJA

Bhoja, author of the Sarasvatī-kaṇthābharaṇa¹ appears to follow a tradition quite different from the orthodox speculations although his treatment maintains in many places, unmistakable traces of the influence of most of his predecessors of the pre-dhvani schools. His work is undoubtedly a compilation like the Alamkāra portion of the Agnipurāṇa of which we shall treat later on.

r. Here we shall discuss Bhoja's treatment only so far as is found in this book. It has not been possible for us to utilise his other work, the Śmgāra-prakāśa, a manuscript of which is lying only in the Govt. Oriental Mss. Library, Madras.

But although he has not been able to weave any theory worth the name due credit must be given to him for presenting us with the traditional information and explaining it profusely with copious illustrations chosen from the earlier texts of Sanskrit Literature.

In his definition of kāvya (nirdoṣam gunavat kāvyam alamkārair alamkrtam rasānvitam.....i, 2) he mentions the different elements of poetry somewhat uncritically. Although he mentions Rasa in his definition, he does not, appear to assign to it a more important place than to Guna and Alamkara. It is needless to mention that, like all other writers, he requires $k\bar{a}rya$ to be kept clear of Dosas and in the very first chapter of his work he deals with Dosas that are to be carefully avoided. As a matter of fact he would recommend no one to the composing of poetry who has not qualified himself by properly understanding the characteristics of the different Dosas belonging to pada, vākya and vākyārtha¹ The Dosas are enumerated as sixteen under each of these three classes, but we are not directly concerned with them here excepting the Arītimat set of vākyadosas i. 19-20. The Aritimat, as the very name indicates, serves to make Rīti defective by the prominence given to the viparyayas or opposites of some standard excellence in a composition. This set of Dosas has been divided into three classes according as they belong to the sphere of the word, the sense or both2. To each of these three classes belong three individual Dosas so that we have

evam padānām vākyānām vākyārthānām ca yaḥ kaviḥ !
 doṣān heyatayā vetti sa kāvyam kartum arhati || i. 58.

^{2.} gunānām dṛṣyate yatra sleṣādīnām viparyayaḥ | arītimad iti prāhus tat tridhaiva pracakṣate || sabdārthobhaya-yogasya prādhānyāt prathamam tridhā | bhūtvā sleṣādi-yogena punas tredhopajāyate || i, 28-29.

altogether nine viparuaua-dosas corresponding to the nine out of ten standard excellences of Dandin. It is interesting to note, in this connection, that Bhoia really deals with two sets of Gunas, viz. (1) one set of nine Gunas in connection with the Rītis and (2) an independent set of twenty-four Gunas. The first set of nine Gunas, however, also appears enumerated by the same names in the other set but that it forms a separate set by itself is clear from the fact that the nine Gunas mentioned under this set do not often bear the same characteristics as the nine enumerated in the other These nine Gunas mentioned in connection with the Ritis have not, however, been exactly defined or characterised but their nature and function have to be comprehended by implication from the Arītimat set of Dosas which are said to be the viparyayas of these Gunas.

From the manner of Bhoja's treatment of the Aritimat set of Doşas, it will appear that regarding the Guṇas that are attached to the Rītis, Bhoja's views are almost similar to those of Daṇḍin. The following table of Bhoja's viparyayas will show to what extent Bhoja has been directly influenced by Daṇḍin in the matter:—

viparyaya-doṣas Corresponding Guṇas deducible from them.

 I. Śithila (looseness)
 (illustration—same as Dandin's i, 43.)

Ślesa (compactness)

II. Viṣama (un-evenness)
(illustration—same as
Dandin's i, 48.)

Samatā (evenness)

III. Kathora (harshness)³

> (illustration—different from Dandin's)*

Saukumāryya (softness to be distinguished from looseness)5

IV. Aprasanna (Farfetchedness)

(illustration—same as Dandin's i, 46)

Prasāda (Lucidity)

Neyārtha (inference of sense)

(illustration—same as Dandin's i, 74)

Arthavyakti (explicitness of sense).

VI. Grāmya (vulgarity)

(illustration—same as Dandin's 1, 63)

(dignity Kānti agreeability)

VII. Asamasta (absence of com-

pound words) Ojas (abundance of (illustration—taken from compound words). (Dandin's mādhurya-

viparyaya i, 59)

VIII. Anirvyūdha (incompletness) (illustration—own)6

Mādhurya (sweetness)

3. saukumārya-viparyāsāt kathora upajāyate i, 32.

asitartitug adricchit svah-ksitām patir advidrk amidbhih subhradredretair dviso jeghniyisista vah I i, illustrative verse 43.

atrāti-katharatvād asaukumāryam supratītam eva,

The above verse has been cited from Bhāmaha i. 46, where it appears as an illustration of a non-technical Doşa, vix. Gudhaśabdābhidhāna. The meaning is hidden in the sense that it is arrived at in a round-about way. For instance, asitartituk means "the son (tuk) of one who has (i. e. leaves behind) a black (asita =not white) path (rti). Bhoja, however, judges the Dosa here from the point of view of bandha alone.

- 5. See pp. 72-3...ch. V. where the question has been discussed in connection with Dandin's Sukumāratā.
 - 6. nakhinām ca nadīnām ca śrnginām śastra-pāņinām | viśvāso naiva kartavyah strīşu rāja-kuleşu ca | i, ill. v. 48.

IX. Analamkāra (want of strikingness)

(illustration - own)

Audārya (elevation)

It may be seen from the above table that the Arītimat set of Bhoja's Dosas numbers nine instead of ten because of Dosa corresponding to the Samādhi-guna of the Riti theorists is lacking in his enumeration. Most of the viparyaya-dosas of Bhoja correspond generally in form and spirit to the viparyayas of Dandin and he quotes very often the illustrations of particular viparyayas from the latter's treatment. Dandin's Grāmya-dosa is the viparyaya corresponding to his arthamādhurya, whereas Bhoja treats it as a viparyaya of Kānti which could not be justified if Bhoja's Kanti were to imply, like Dandin's, absence of the unnatural. It is likely, therefore, that in Dandin's Kanti Bhoja lays emphasis upon the expression sarva-jagat-kāntam (=agreeable to the whole world.....Dandin, i, 85), whereas Grāmyatā implies a manner of expression in vogue the unsophisticated people, creating a sense of aversion in the cultured class alone. We have seen that Dandin did not mention any viparyaya corresponding to his Audārya-Guņa since the particular Guna was, in his opinion, to be seen in both the Gauda and the Vaidarbha modes. The want of striking charm involved in Bhoja's Analamkāra has been explicitly stated (a, i, i, 42-43) to be due to the absence of any expression of some high merit or of any praiseworthy epithet as involved in Dandin's Udāratā (i, 76 and i, 79). Bhoja's illustrative verse dīrghapuccha etc. of this Dosa contains some insignificant epithets and in this sense it may be justified as an

^{7.} dirghapucchas catuspādah kakudmān-tlamba-kambalah | gorapatyam balivardas trņam atti mukhena sah ||

appropriate illustration of the viparyaya of Audārya. Bhoja's idea of Dandin's Mādhurya was surely illconceived. If Dandin's Madhurya clearly implies (i) absence of vulgarity and (ii) a special type of Anuprāsa, it is really difficult to say how the illustrative verse nakhinām ca etc. in connection with Bhoja's Aniryvūdha-dosa contains viparvava corresponding to that particular Guna. Is it to be understood that the verse in question is defective because it contains varnānumāsa accepted, according to Dandin, in the Gauda mode instead of śrutyanuprāsa accepted in the Vaidarbha? This is a fine logic indeed! Surely Bhoja does not specifically mention that a deviation from the Vaidarbha mode gives rise to the Aritimat set of Dosas! From Bhoja's vrtti⁸ it seems that he does not take Mādhurya in the techical sense in which Dandin has understood it but generally means by it 'a sweetness of sense' which in his opinion, is lacking in the verse in question. Besides, the verse possesses, in Bhoja's a lack of uniformity due to the use of different vibhaktis in connection with the same word viśvāsa. This appears to correspond rather to the viparyaya of Vāmana's Samatā (p. 101 above) and not at all to that of Dandin's Madhurya. Bhoja's quotation, therefore, of Dandin's definition of Mādhurya in this connection becomes altogether meaningless. It only shows that he has lost the spirit of Dandin's treatment. Lastly, it is also difficult to see why absence of compound words involved in the viparyaya of Ojas should be a defect of poetry. Even if it be so, Bhoja's attempt to support

^{8. ...}nakhinām ca nadīnām ceti şaṣṭhyantāc cakāreṇa rīter upakrame srnginām sasṭra-pāninām iti cakāra-nirvāhāt strīṣu rājakuleṣu ceti ṣaṣṭhī-parityāgād amadhurārthatvācca mādhurya-viparyaya-nāmāyam sabda-pradhāno guņa-viparyayo doṣaḥ.

his position by the particular quotation from Dandin (Bh. i, 37=D. i, 60) is curious. Why should the verse smarah kharah khalah kāntah etc. (Bh. i, ill. v. 47=D. i, 59) be discarded as an example of Asamasta-dosa on the ground that there are bandha-pārusya and bandhaśaithilya involved in it? It is likely that Bhoja himself was conscious of his weak point that absence of compounds as such does not render a poem defective and so he rejected Dandin's verse smarah kharah etc. in consideration of the fact that it gives rise to some other defects, namely, bandha-saithilya and bandha-pārusya. But admitting the fact that these viparyayas, as a class of veritable Dosas, do not attach themselves to particular Rīti, why should the dākṣinātyas be specially mentioned as disapproving of this kind of composition (ato naivam...dāksinātyāh prayuñjate...i, 37c-d)?

In spite of such discrepancies there can hardly be any doubt that Bhoja was indebted to Dandin in evolving this set of Dosas and in his conception of the corresponding set of Gunas. These Gunas, in Bhoja's treatment do not appear to form the inseparable characteristics of any particular Riti but they are common to all the Ritis. The Ritis in general would suffer from deficiency if, instead of the Gunas, there viparyayas were present in them. It is for this that these viparyayas constitute a set of Dosas of which the name has been rightly given as Arītimat. We have already seen (Ch. V. pp. 60-61 fn.) that there is a marked difference between the treatments of Dandin and Bhoja regarding the application of the viparyayas. Bhoja accepts vaiparītya or opposite as the only meaning of viparyaya and whatever possesses a characteristic opposite to that of a Guna is a Dosa. On this point Bhoja's indebtedness to Vāmana also cannot be doubted. Vāmana's dictum quna-viparyayātmano dosāh influenced him to a great extent and led him to the extreme position that the *viparyayas* of the standard Guṇas do not sometimes create a separate Rīti as Daṇḍin thinks, but form a distinct set of Doṣas which are detrimental to all Rītis.

Bhoja's treatment of the Rītis is somewhat unique. He does not treat Riti as a separate element of poetry but includes it under the śabdālamkāras which appear in chapter II of his work. He gives a derivative definition of the term Rīti and takes it to be synonymous with Marga which he describes as the way or manner of composition which the people of Vidarbha and other lands follow.10 The spirit involved in Bhoja's Rīti. therefore, partly approximates Kuntaka's Mārga which he understood to be kaviprasthāna-hetu oft 'mode of poetic practice' although the scope of the element differs in the treatment of the two writers-Kuntaka's Marga being elastic in character, Bhoja's Rīti comparatively limited. He maintains a larger number of Rītis than any other writer of repute. We have seen that Dandin dealt with only two amongst many ways of speech viz. Vaidarbha To this Vāmana added a third—Pāñcālī, and Gauda. all the Ritis in the treatment of both being determined by the absence or presence of certain standard Gunas.

^{9.} This perhaps indicates Bhoja's sense of consistency as compared with the writer of the Alamkāra portion of the Agnipurāṇa. We have seen that in his definition of poetry Bhoja mentions all the main poetic elements excepting Rīti and Dhvani both of which have been, in fact, included under the Alamkāras. This procedure, although open to criticism is not without its own merit, for admitting the fact that a proper definition of poetry requires a mention of all the essential elements. Bhoja's treatment later on has been quite in conformity with his definition of poetry.

vaidarbhādikṛtaḥ panthāḥ kāvye mārga iti smṛtaḥ |
 rīn gatāv iti dhātoḥ sā vyutpattyā rītir ucyate | ii, 27.

Rudrața enumerated four Rītis adding one Lātīvā to Vāmana's enumeration but his Rītis were determined chiefly by the absence or presence in varying degrees of compound words. Bhoja's Rītis are six in number. namely, Vaidarbhī, Pāñcālī, Gaudīyā, Lātīyā, Āvantikā and Māgadhī, the last two being added to the enumeration of Rudrata. It is to be noted that Bhoja's Ritis are determined both by the presence or absence of certain standard excellences as in the treatment of the Rīti theorists and of compound words as in Rudrata. This is not surprising because his work being encyclopaedic in character attempts at compiling the views of different theorists. Thus (1) the Vaidarbhī Riti is marked by a few compound words and presence of all the Gunas.11. (ii) The Pañcali may contain compounds of not more than five or six words. The Gunas Madhurya and Saukumārva should predominate therein, but in any case Ojas and Kānti must not be present in it.12 (iii) The Gaudi Riti should contain long compounds and the Gunas, Ojas and Kānti should prominently shine in it. 18 (iv) The Avantikā again is an intermediate type between

II tatrāsamāsā nihšeṣa-śleṣādi-guṇa-gumphitā | vipancī-svaru-saubhāgyā vaidarbhī rītir iṣyate || ii, 29.

The attribute *vipaīicīsvar asaubhāgyā* is probably to imply a harmonious unification of all the poetic excellence in this Rīti.

^{12.} samasta-pañcaṣa-padām ojaḥ-kānti-vivarjitām | madhurām sukumārām ca pāñcālīm kavayo viduḥ || ii, 30.

¹³ samastātyudbhaṭapadām ojaḥ-kānti-guṇānvitām ļ gaudīyeti vijānanti rītim rīti-vicakṣanāḥ 🏿 ii, 31.

It is interesting to note that Bhoja's definitions and interpretation of the Rītis Vaidarbhī, Gaudīyā and Pāūcālī are almost similar to the characteristics of these Rītis cited by Vāmana (under i, 2, 11-13) in support of his own definitions. The tīkākāra was also rightly under the impression that Bhoja maintained fully the tradition of Vāmana.

Vaidarbhī and Pāñcālī—it admits of compounds of three or four words and there is perhaps no hard and fast rule regarding the presence of Guṇas. (v) Lāṭīyā is a peculiar admixture of all the Rītis. It is perhaps meant that a particular few or all the Guṇas may be present in it, and may be marked by compound words of all variable length. (vi) Māgadhī is a defective mode of speech where uniformity is lacking throughout the composition, i.e. where the composition begins with a particular Rīti but it breaks in the interval, making place for some other Rīti. 16

From the above sketch it seems that by the addition of the last three Rītis, namely, Lāṭīyā, Āvantikā and Māgadhī Bhoja has practically made no improvement upon any of his predecessors. The first three Rītis, Vaidarbhī, Pāñcālī and Gauḍīyā have been distinctly characterised but the nature of the last named Rītis is not clearly understandable. The remark that a particular Rīti is the admixture of all other Rītis or that it stands midway between some other Rītis is either meaningless or it unnecessarily enlarges the scope and classification of Rītis indefinitely. It appears that some political significance has been attached to Bhoja's Rītis. Bhoja was himself the Lord of Avantī and probably this was the only reason for naming a Rīti after the land ruled by hīm.¹⁷

The distinction between Bhoja's Gunas and Alamkāras is not at all well-marked. Although he remarks that

^{14.} antarāle tu pāricālī-vaidarbhyor-yā'vatisthate | sā'vantikā samastaih syād dvitrais tricaturaih padaih | ii. 32.

^{15.} samastarītir vyāmisrā lātīyā rītir ucyate | ii, 33a-b.

^{16.} pūrva-rīter anirvāhe khaṇḍarītis tu māgadhī 1 ii, 33c-d.

^{17.} vide S. P. Bhattacharyya, The Gandi Riti in Theory, and Practice (1. H. Q. June, 1927, pp. 376-394)

the Gunas occupy a more important place in poetry than the Alamkāras18—his treatment does not in any way support his position. From his definition of poetry it does not appear that he assigns any special importance to any particular element of poetry but that he is going to incorporate somehow all the elements in his treatment. He has, of course assigned a definite place to Rasa in his definition of poetry. With the developed scheme of Poetics of the Dhyani school before him he could not be so indifferent as to ignore entirely the prominence of Rasa, but he does not seem to give to Rasa a theoretic and systematic position in his scheme of Poetics. He does not admit its connexion with Dhyani which he included under a particular Guna, viz.-Gāmbhīrya! His nonacceptance of the importance of Dhyani, his detailed treatment of external of poetry and consequently his failure to correlate Rasa with other elements of poetry, his borrowing from early writers but failure to realise the spirit of their treatment made his work so unsystematic and uncritical that he could not create a school of opinion nor attract any following in later times19.

^{18.} alamkṛtam api śravyam na kāvyam guṇavarjitam. | guṇa-yogas tayor mukhyo guṇālamkāra-yogayoḥ № i, 59.

^{19.} Vidyānātha and Prakāśavarṣa are the only writers who have followed Bhoja's scheme of the Guṇas. In the chapter entitled Guṇaprakaraṇa of his work. Vidyānātha repeats both in spirit and expressions the definition of Bhoja's twenty-four sabia-guṇas discussed by him to belong to the artha as well (eteṣām guṇānām artha-gatatvam api hecid icchanti p. 334. 1.3). Evidently he is referring here to the treatment of Bhoja and it appears that he himself does not like to discuss the arthaguṇas separately. It deserves to be noted in this connection that Vidyānātha makes a very pertinent remark that all the Guṇas enumerated by him are not universally treated as positive excellences (guṇatvam na sarvasammatam p. 322, 1.9) because

Bhoja has nowhere given a general definition of Gunas or of Alainkaras but they have been roughly treated as embellishments of poetry generally. We are not told which element in what particular way adorns poetry so that there is nothing to prevent us from treating certain Gunas as Alamkāras and vice versa. On this point Bhoja's peculiar position will be still more evident if we just consider his treatment of the Rītis. The Rīti has been treated as one of the śabdālainkāras and the Gunas play an important part in his conception of Rīti but the term has been used also in connection with a particular Guna. Thus, Bhoja's position clearly resolves into the curious proposition that some particular Alamkāra i.e. the Rīti is determined by the presence of certain Gunas, which is an impossibility if the two elements are taken to embellish poetry in two different ways. It would appear, therefore, that in spite of his direct assertion to the contrary and his quotation of the verse yadi bhavati vacas cyutam gunebhyah etc. following the lead of Vāmana, Bhoja really observes no theoretical distinction between Gunas and Alamkāras as external embellishments of poetry.

He classified the Guṇas into three classes (i, 60) namely (1) $b\bar{a}hya$, (2) $\bar{a}bhyantara$ and (3) vaisesika. The first set corresponds to the $\hat{s}abdaguna$ of earlier writers; the second to arthaguna; and those that come

some of them contain merely 'absence of fault' (doşu-parihūra-katvena gunatvam ibid, 1.7) and as such they are less charming than those which enhance the poetic effect on their own account (svata eva cārutvātišayahetavaḥ—ibid, 1.8). Prakāśavarṣa appears to follow Bhoja closely throughout his work. But he accepts twenty-two Guṇas each of śabda (ii, 7-23) and artha (ii, 24-35) in place of Bhoja's twenty-four omitting Gati and Praudhi from his enumeration. The number of Bhoja's Vaišesika-guṇas however, he has retained all right.

under the third set have not been treated by the orthodox writers as a class of technical Gunas. They were originally Dosas and have now ceased to be such owing to some special circumstances for which they are called specific (vaisesika) Gunas²⁰. In the enumeration of this third set of Gunas one cannot doubt Bhoja's indebtedness to early writers like Bhāmaha and Dandin who had already admitted the possibility of accepting certain Dosas in poetry as valid under particular circumstances. Vāmana's teaching that Gunas Dosas of poetry stand in opposite relation to each other led Bhoja further to understand, by implication, that whatever ceases to destroy the effects of poetry becomes a Guna. The number of the technical Gunas treated by Bhoja is twenty-four and each of them belongs to śabda and artha. They may be given as follows:

Śabdaguṇa

- (i) Ślesa—coalescence of words (suślistapadatā i, 66a)
- (ii) Prasāda: use of words of which the sense is well-know
 (prasiddhāratha-padatvam i, 66c)

Arthaguṇa

- (i) the quality of being well connected (susūtratā) in the sequence of events (samvidhāne i, 78d.21
- (ii) Clarity of sense (prākaṭyam arthasya i, 79a)

^{20.} bāhyāḥ śabdagunās teşu cāntarās tvartha-samśrayāḥ | vaiśeṣikās tu te nūnam doṣatve' pi hi ye gunāḥ || i, 61.

^{21.} The spirit involved in this Guna and the illustration given of it correspond exactly to those of Vāmana's arthaśleşa (see ch. VI, pp. 99-101 above).

Śabdaguna

- (iii) Samatā—absence of unevenness (avaisamyeṇa bhaṇanam) in the three structures²
- (iv) Mādhurya— distinctness of words (pṛthakpadatā i, 68a, Vāmana iii, 1, 20) arising from the absence of sandhi.
 - (v) Sukumāratā—absence of harshness due to the use of mostly soft syllables. (aniṣṭhurā-kṣara-prāyam i, 68e Dandin i, 69)
- (vi) Arthavyakti— completeness of the sentence from the words uttered (sampūrņa-vākyatvam,i, 69a)²⁶

Arthaguna

- (iii) Nonrelinquishment of the sequence of ideas (avaiṣamyam kramavatām, i, 79c)²³
- (iv) Placidity (lit.—absence of severity) even under the influence of anger etc. (krodhā-dāvapyatīvratā i, 80b)²⁺
 - (v) Absence of harshness *i.e.* tenderness of ideas (aniṣṭhu-ratva i, 80c)
- (vi) Faithful description of the nature of things (svarū-pasya sākṣātkatha-nam i, 81a-b)^{2 °}

^{22.} This reminds one of Dandin i, 47. (ch. V, pp. 65-67 above).

^{23.} cf. Vāmana, ch. VI, pp. 101-2 above.

^{24.} cf. Agnipurāņa, ch. VIIc, below.

^{25.} It corresponds partly to Dandin's Guna of the same name (see ch. V. pp. 73-76 above).

^{26.} cf. Vāniana's arthaguna of the same name, ch. VI, pp. 166ff. above.

Śabdaguna

- (vii) Kānti—Richness of words giving rise to a dignity in the composition *ujjvalatvain bandhasya* i, 69c)²⁷
- (viii) Audāryya liveliness in the composition (vikaṭākṣara-bandhatvam i,70)²⁸
 - (ix) Udāttatā—mention of worthy epithets (ślāghyair viśeṣanair yogaḥ i, 70c=
 Daṇḍin's Udāra in i, 79a).
 - (x) Ojas—superabundance of compound words (samūsa-bhūyastram i, 71a= Daṇḍin, i, 80a)
 - (xi) Aurjitya—compactness of structure (gāḍhabandhatā i, 71 b = Vāmana's śabdaguṇa Ojas iii, 1, 5)

Arthaguna

- (vii) Conspicuous presence of Rasas dīpta-rasatvam i, 81c=Vāmana iii, 2, 14)
- (viii) Grandeur of glory (bhūtyutkarṣa i, 81d)
 - (ix) Nobleness of intention (āśayasya utkarṣah i, 82a)
 - (x) Emphatic assertion of a certain statement (svādh-ya-vasāyasya artheṣu . viśeṣaḥ=1 i, 82 c-d)
 - (xi) Expression of anger gone to excess (rūḍhāha-inkāratā i, 83a=Daṇḍin's Urjasvi Alaiikāra ii, 275 c)

^{27.} This is akin to Vāmana's śabdakānti (ibid).

^{28.} It reminds one of Vāmana iii, 1, 22 (ch. VI, p. 106 above).

Śabdaguņa

- (xii) Preyas—an agreeable statement (priyatarākhyānam i, 71c=Daṇḍin's Alaṅkāra of the same name ii, 275a)
- (xiii) Suśabdatā— proper use of nouns and verbs *i.e.* grammatical correctness. (suptinām vyutpattiḥi,72a=Bhāmaha i, 14c)
- (xiv) Samādhi Transference of the qualities of one to the other (anyadharmā-ṇām yad anyatrā-dhiropaṇām i,72c-d = Daṇḍin i, 93)
- (xv) Saukṣmya—Use of words in which is involved a subtlety of sense (antaḥsamjalparūpatvam i, 73a)
- (xvi) Gāmbhīrya The quality of containing all concepts of

Arthaguṇa

- (xii) Preference of a particular object (artheṣvabhīṣṭatā i, 83b)
- (xiii) Use of auspicious expression for inauspicious idea (dāruņeṣu adāruṇārthaparyāyaḥ i, 83 c-d)²9
- (xiv) Recourse to a pretext (vyājāva-lambanam i, 84a) in order to justify one's position.
- (xv) Comprehension of one's inner feeling from external gestures sūkṣmā-rthābhidarśanam i, 84c)
- (xvi) Dependence upon the rules of Śāstra. (śāstrārtha

^{29.} It corresponds to one of the Gunas in the Agnipurāna i.e. the ubhaya-guna Prāsastya in 346/21-22 (cf. ch. VIIc below).

Śąbdaguņa

Dhavni (dhvanimattā i, 73c)

- (xvii) Vistara analytic expression of idea (vyāsena uktih i, 73d)³¹
- (xviii) Sańksepa—Synthetic expression of idea (samāsenābhidhānam i, 74a)^{3 2}

Arthaguṇa

savyapekṣatvam, i, 85a)^{so}

- (xvii) a gradual manifestation of the intended sense (artharikāśaḥ i, 85c)
- (xviii) Brevity in which an extensive topic is expressed in a single sentence (arthasya sainvrtih i, 85d)

30. This perhaps refers to a composition where the meaning is clear to the reader only when he knows the technicalities involved in the injunctions of $\delta \bar{a} stra$. As for instance the meaning of the given verse

maitryādi-citta-parikarmavido vidhāya kleśa-prahāṇamiha labdha-sabījayogāḥ ļ khyātim ca sattva-puruṣānyatayādhigamya vānchanti tam api samādhibhṛto niroddhum ॥

i, ill: v. 114 cited from Śiśupālavadha, IV, 55.

will not be intelligible unless one knows the meaning of the philosophical terms maitrya-kleśa etc.

- 31. It is akin to Vāmana's third variety of arthapraudhi (see ch. VI, p. 95 above).
- 32. This is partly equivalent to fourth variety (samāsa) of Vāmana's arthapraudhi with this difference that whereas in Vāmana's Samāsa several complete sentences are shortened into a single sentence by convenient grammatical forms, here great incidents which would otherwise have been described at length are expressed briefly in a single sentence or a half verse.

Śabdaguna

- (xix) Sammitatva the use of exactly as many words as are required to understand the sense (yāvadarthapadutram i, 74c)^{3 s}
 - (xx) Bhāvika— utterance out of a deep emotion (bhāvato vākyavṛttiḥ i, 75a)
- (xxi) Gati—orderly sequence of ascent and descent (ārohā-varohayoḥ kramaḥ i, 75c-d=Vāmana's sabdaguṇa Samādhi, iii, 1, 12)
- (xxii) Rīti continuance or maintenance of the original manner (upakramasya nirvāhah, i 76a)⁸ ⁴

Arthaguna

- (xix) Suitability or exact matching of word and sense (Śabdārthau yatra tulyau staḥ i, 86a)
 - (xx) A trend of speech having a particular intention involved in it.
 (sābhiprāyokti-vi-nyāsah, i, 86c)
- (xxi) Comprehension of one meaning from another (arthād arthānatarasyāv-agamaḥ=i, 87a-b)
- (xxii) The sequence of actions from the very beginning (utpattyādikriyā-kramah i, 87d)

^{33.} It appears to correspond to Vāmana's arthaguṇa Prasāda (see ch. VI, pp. 99 above).

^{34.} It possibly contains an absence of Prakrama-bhongadosa, and it appears to approximate sabca-samatā of Vāmana (ch. VI, pp. 101-2 above) which involves a uniformity in the beginning, in the middle and at the end.

Śabdaguna

- (xxiii) Ukti— a particular cleverness of speech (višiṣṭā bhaṇitiḥ i, 76c) on which perhaps a statement can be made to the point.
- (xxiv) Praudhi expressions involving a depth or maturity of sense (ukteh paripākah, i, 77a)

Arthaguṇa

- (xxiii) Bringing out the sense intended with some amount of delicacy so as to avoid any vulgarity (yadi svārtho bhangyā bhavyo' bhidhīyate i, 88a-b)3 5
- (xxiv) Bringing out the intended meanings (vivakṣitārtha-nir-vāhaḥ i, 88c) in short clauses consisting of finely chosen words and expressions 3 6

Bhoja then proceeds to discuss the third set of his Guṇas, namely, those that are Guṇas in spite of being faults. Like the Doṣas, the vaiśeṣika Guṇas have been classified into three classes according as they belong to (1) the pada, (2) the vākya and (3) the vākyārtha. We shall discuss here the vaiśeṣika Guṇas corresponding only to the padadoṣas just to ascertain the general character of this set of Bhoja's Guṇas. The other two

^{35.} This seems to correspond to Vāmana's arthaguṇa Udāratā, defined as agrāmyatvam (ch. VI, p. 106 above) Bhoja's illustration too, (tvam evam-saundaryā etc), is the same as that of Vāmana's Guṇa just mentioned. It appears that his expression bhvaya in Bhoja's arthaguṇa Ukti brings in the idea of absence of vulgarity.

^{36.} Rāmsinha explicitly remarks: haver abhimatasya bhūyaso'py arthasya slvapenaiva vākyena pratipādanam praudhih (com. on i, 88c, p. 74).

classes may better be studied in connection with the concept of Dosa. As these do not constitute a technical set of Gunas, later writers call them Gunas only secondarily and they rightly treat of them in the chapter of Dosas the character of which should be first ascertained in order to understand the secondary Gunas. In ordinary circumstances harshness, superfluity, vulgarity etc. should be avoided in poetry as distinct faults but when expressions involving them are used in anger or for the sake of a particular metre or when uttered by vulgar persons respectively, they do not produce the same amount of aversion in the reader; they rather fit in with the character and temperament of those who use them. Since the propriety (aucitya) which is the most important thing in poetry is not disturbed, later writers called these not Dosas but Gunas, although they did not mean to include them under the technical class of Gunas. But Bhoja has gone one step further and has boldly asserted that these are Gunas not by sufferance but in reality since under circumstances already noticed they do not destroy poetic effect but rather enhance it, and whatever enhances poetic beauty is its Guna. We should remember in this place that like the śabda—and artha-gunas, the Vaiśesika-Gunas too are twenty four in number under each set. The following table will show under what circumstances the padadosas constitute the vaisesika class of Gunas in Bhoja's opinion.

Name of Its character When it becomes the Doşa a Guṇa

I. Asādhu grammatically in- in imitation

correct (śabda- (anukaraṇe i, 91 c). śāstra-viruddham i. 7 a) Name of the Dosa

Its character

When it becomes a Guna

II. Aprayukta that which is not in imitation (anukarane i. 92b)37 admitted by poets in usage (karibhir na prawktam i, 70)

III. Kasta

unpleasant to the ear (sruter asukhadam i. 8a)

in abuses or harsh utterances (durvacakādisu i. 92d)3 s

IV. Anarthaka a particle which is inconnection used only to complete a foot of a verse (pādapūranamātrā rtham i. Sc) i.e. redundant or superfluous.

with verbal figures like vamaka (qunatvam anumanuante tasyāpi yamakādisu i, 93 c-d).

^{37.} In the opinion of Mammata, Aprayukta, involves a word which, though formally correct, is not admitted by poets into usage (under sūtra 72, p. 270). He does not consider it to be a fault if it occurs in the poetic figure Ślesa (under sūtra 81, p. 419).

^{38.} Mammata calls this Dosa srutikatu (sutra 72) as also kastatva (vrtti on sutra 81, p. 423). In his opinion this Doşa becomes an excellence (1) when the speaker (vaktr) or the person spoken to (pratipādya) is a grammarian (vaiyākaraņa) and (2) when Raudra Rasa is being depicted in the composition (vytti under Viśyanātha further narrows down the scope sūtra 81. p. 423). of this Dosa by remarking that it is also a Guna when the speaker is overcome with anger. (krodha-samyukte...kar 589a) or when the subject matter is of a dignified nature (vacye samuddhate... kār 589 b).

Name of Its character. When it becomes the Dosa. a Guna. V. Anyārtha having a sense that inriddles or coundoes not condrums (prahelikāform to the estadisu i, 94. c). blished usage (rūdhicuntam i. 9. a). VI Apustartha useless expansion for the sake αf of epithets metres etc. (chan-(tucchābhidheyam do'nurodhādau i. i, 9 c). 95 c). VII. Asamartha A word which is when, for instance, it not ordinarily

not ordinarily employed in the sense in which it has been actually used (asangatam padam i, 10a or avācakam i, 96b).

when, for instance, it is sanctioned in erotic science (kāma-sāstre 'numatatvād gunatvam, vṛtti, on i. 96)35.

39. pratipāditam ādau (i.e. in i, 19) yad asamartham avācakam | tasyāpi khalu manyante guņatvam sītkr/ādiṣu || i, 96.

Bhoja appears to hold that this Doşa is asamartha (incapable of giving the sense required) because it is avācaka (i.e. the sabda does not usually express that sense). Mammata, however, enumerates Asamartha and Avācaka as two distinct Doṣas and a difference, though subtle, is noticed in their respective nature. He defines the first as yat tadartham pathyate na ca tatrāsya saktih (under sātra 72, p. 271) and the second as tatra ca nābhidhāyakam (i.e. that particular sense cannot be conveyed by the denotative power of the word...ibid, p. 275) MM. Ganganath Jha rightly remarks that Asamartha 'though incapable of expressing the intended meaning in its entirety, does express a portion of it', Avācaka 'is absolutely unable to express any portion of it at all' Translation of Kāvyaprakāśa, Allahabad, 1925.

Name of the Dosa.

Its character.

When it becomes a Guna.

VIII. Apratīta

what is frequently used only in the sastras (prasidhain sastra eva yat i. 10d), and as much it is unintelligible (apratīta) to ordinary men.

in a conversation between persons who are acquainted with the technicalities of the śāstra (tadvidya-sambhā-ṣā'dau i, 97 c-d)*°.

IX. Klista

A word of which the desired sense is impeded by the intervention of certain words (dūre yasyārtha-samvittih i, 11a).

when the sense is quickly understood in spite of such intervention (ihatityartha-pratītau i, 98 c).

X. Gūḍhārtha

use of a word in a less known meaning (aprasiddhār-tham i, 11 c).

when that less-known meaning is explicitly hinted at (vyākhyānādişu i, 99 c).

XI. Neyārtha

where the meaning is arrived at not directly but through synonyms (srasamketapraklptārtham i, 12 a).

in riddles or conundrums (prāhelikādīsu i, 100 c).

^{40.} Viśvanātha too understands this Doşa to be a Guna under similar circumstances (jnatvam ced vaktr-vācyayoḥ kār. 582. p. 490).

Name of the Dosa. Its character

When it becomes a Guna.

XII. Sandigdha a word which does not produce a definite meaning (na vat padam niścayakrt i. 12c).

when the particulars are known from the context (hhaved viśesāvagamo yadi prakaranādibhih i. 101 c-d).

XIII Viruddha

conceiving a meancontrary to ing what. is desired (viparītaprakalpanam i, 102b)

when uttered with the precise object of producing a contrary effect. (tathāhhūtāhhidhānena qunatvam pratipadyate i, 102 c-d)

XIV. Aprayojaka use of an epithet without which is any special significance (avisesavidhā*uakam* i, 103b) with reference to the object to which it is applied.

when the epithet is used on its own account i.e. possesses a significance of its own svarūpamātre vaktavue i. 103c)

XV. Deśva

A word which has no etymological formation (yad avyut- poet (mahākavipattimat padam i, nibaddham 14 a-b)

If it is employed by a first class 104c)

XVI. Grāmya

It involves words that give rise to a sense of (1) aver-

When these (1) are accepted by people without

Name of the Doşa.

(Grāmya conti.)

Its character

sion, (2) indecency and (3) inauspiciousness (ghṛṇāvat, aślīla and amaṅgala i, 14 c-d)

When it becomes a Guṇa.

any sense of aversion (samvī-ta), (2) indecentideas do not shine prominently (gupta) and (3) they are used in a secondary sense (lakṣita) i, 105 c-d.

Bhoja divides each of ghṛṇā, aślīla and amangala into three sub-divisions so that the vaisesika Gunas corresponding to the Grāmyadosa alone number nine. together with the other fifteen varieties makes the number of the vaisesika Gunas corresponding to the padadosas twenty-four. It will be a useless task to follow in detail Bhoja's conception of the forty-eight vaišesika Gunas corresponding to the two sets of rākyaand vākyārtha-dosas. He hardly displays any appreciable amount of originality of treatment therein. Of the vaišesika Gunas corresponding to his vūkyadosas, those in connection with Sabdavihīna (i. 111), Kramabhrasta (i, 112), Visandhi (i, 113-114), Punarukta (i, 115), Bhagnayati (i, 124) and the Upamādosas (i, 120) have been clearly conceived after Dandin whose kārikās and illustration he often utilizes. Then again the vaiśesika Gunas corresponding to Bhoja's Arītimat set of rākyadosas (i, 126-134) generally follow Dandin's conception of the Gauda ideal. Only in two instances a kārikā of Bhāmaha (i.e. definition of Prasāda. Bhoja i, 129=Bhāmaha ii, 3 c-d) and an illustration of Vāmana i.e. illustration of Vāmana's Samatā-viparyaya iii, 1, 11 =that of Bhoja's Anirvyūdhadosa turning to be a Guna i, i11. v. 174) have been cited. Of the Guṇas corresponding to Bhoja's vākyārthadoṣas again, those in connection with Apārtha (i, 136), Ekārtha (i, 138) and Sandigdha (i, 139) clearly display Daṇḍin's influence upon Bhoja. These last cases we have already discussed (ch. V. pp. 81-2 fn. 51)

It will appear even to a superficial reader that Bhoja's treatment of the Gunas is lacking a definite system. Thus, there is an apparent confusion in the classification itself of the Gunas. Bhoja himself devides his Gunas into three classes namely, bāhya, ābhyantara and vaisesika and in his opinion they all possess the dignity of positive excellences. But, really speaking, three distinct sets of Gunas are traceable in his treatment—one constitutes by itself a technical set and therefore possesses a positive value, while the other two presuppose a knowledge of the Dosas to understand them and therefore they may be said to be negatively conceived. The first set consists of Bhoja's general Gunas numbering twenty-four each of which belongs separately to the word and the sense i.e. is both bahya and abhyantara. The second set of Gunas is mentioned in connection of the Rītis, but it is curious enough that the character of these Gunas has not been determined. They are to be comprehended by implication from the Aritimat set of Dosas. The Gunas so deduced appear to be different from the general Gunas of the same name most of which have been difined after Vamana and some after Dandin. The third set constitutes the vaisesika Gunas which are excellences, in spite of their being positive blemishes. This is a defective position of which the later writers appear to be conscious when they take these to be Gunas only secondarily. Mere absence of a fault cannot be a positive excellence just as absence of disease is not health and a boy who is

'not bad' does not necessarily come under category of 'good' boys. Then again, the number of the Gunas of earlier writers has been unnecessarily multiplied.

The distinction between the śabdaguna and the arthaguna has been observed more in theory than in otherwise how could the sabdagunas practice: (1) Gāmbhīrya which includes all concepts of Dhyani and (2) Praudhi which involves a maturity of conception (both having therefore a direct reference to the sense) be treated as sabdagunas? To the sabda-guna Preyas and the artha-guna Aurjitya belong the same characteristics as to the figures Preyas and Uriasvin respectively of Dandin both of which involve the sense. It is, therefore, difficult to see if one is a śabda-guna why the other should be an artha-guna. Besides, there are some other Gunas, namely, Sauksmya (śabda), Praudhi (artha), Vistāra (śabda), Sanksepa (śabda) and Sammitatva (artha) etc. in which the word and sense seem to equally important: yet they have been treated belonging to the one or the other. The standard of āśrayāśrayibhāva in determining the śabda-guna and artha-guna has been considered by the post-dhyani theorists 41 to be defective in itself; and even when this standard is not rigidly followed there is no end of inconsistency. If after Bhoja a separate Guna has to be evolved for every subtle intention of the speaker, for each of his gestures and for every manner of speaking, the Gunas will far exceed the number twenty four and they will practically be innumerable. Bhoja is greatly influenced both by Vāmana and by Dandin but very rarely has he been able to harmonise their views with his own. As for instance, Vāmana does not treat Rasa as an important element of poetry and so he has included Rasa under his arthaguna

^{41.} See Sāhityadarpaņa, p. 548, vrtti under Kār. 644.

Kānti; Bhoja treats Rasa separately and in detail as an important element of poetry with all its accessories and his inclusion again of Rasa under Kānti, under Vāmana's influence, serves to make his inconsistency more marked. The element of Dhyani, of which he must have been fully conscious, has not been given any independent treatment but some aspects of a 'suggested sense' have been included under the śabda-guna Gāmbhīrva and the artha-gunas Bhāvika and Gati. Sometimes he borrows the definition of a particular Guna from either Vāmana or Dandin and the character of the same Guna of the other writer gives him an opportunity of evolving a new Guna. Thus, his śabda-guna Ojas is the same as Dandin's Ojas (samāsa-bhūyastva), whereas the character of Vāmana's Ojas (gādha-bandhatva) is found in his śabda-guna, Aurjitya. His śabda-guna Audārya (vikatāksara-bandhatva) corresponds to Vāmana's Guņa of the same name, and Dandin's second Udāratā appears in his treatment as a separate Guna, Udāttatā. Then again, the different varieties of Vāmana's artha-praudhi have formed separate Gunas in Bhoja. All this led to the unnecessary and illogical multiplication of the Gunas. It is probably apprehending this that the Dhvani theorists limited the number of Gunas down to three, characterising them on quite a novel basis. Bhoja was considered by their followers to be so uncritical that they completely ignored his treatment.

Although Bhoja's treatment is not free from the defects of an unsystematic compiler, it is, no doubt, clear and intelligible unlike the Agnipurāṇa to which work we shall presently turn. It will be seen that whatever the Purāṇa-kāra says is at best vague; it lacks directness and system making it thereby almost impossible for his reader to understand exactly his definitions and theories. Bhoja, on the other hand, is

free from this vagueness; what he means to say he says with boldness and some amount of system so that there is no difficulty in understanding his treatment and views. He may be uncritical but he is not vague. He has spared no pains in trying to make his treatment elaborate and intelligible by means of copious illustrations which are so sadly lacking in the Purāṇa. Bhoja's treatment, considered on its own merit, is unsystematic and uncritical, but this is due not so much to his lack of boldness and ability of presentation as to his attempt at compiling traditional views without their original spirit and advocating a line of opinion which does not generally follow the treatment of any particular orthodox school.

C

The author of the Alamkāra portion of the Agnipurāṇa is the last of the remarkable writers who have kept apart from the orthodox schools of thought. The scrapy, vague and often unsystematic and chaotic character of this section of the Purāṇa, the want of reference to any particular view thore-of in any well-known Alamkāra work, the curious coincidence in thought and expression of the section specially of the rīti-nirūpaṇa chapter there-in with the Śṛṅgāraprakāśa of Bhoja as noted by V. Raghavan¹ and the very cogent argument regarding Śṛṅgāra as the Rasa and of the other Rasas as subsidiary thereof—a point emphasised by Bhoja in his own statement²

^{1.} I. H. Q. Vol. X, No. 4, p. 774.

āmnāsiṣur daśa guṇān sudhiyo vayantu | śṛṅgāram eva rasanād rasam āmanāmaḥ ||

and already pointed out by S. P. Bhattacharyya's would lead us to place the date of this section of the work later than Bhoja.

In his definition of kāvya-kāvyam sphuradalamkāram qunavad dosavarjitam—the author mentions some of the established elements of poetry. The figures of speech must be conspicuously present in it—the poetic excellences (Guna) must be there but it must be free from the poetic flaws (Dosa). The other elements, namely, Dhyani, Rasa and Riti have not been mentioned in the definition but the writer has treated of them elsewhere in his work. Rasa has been mentioned in connection with the mahākāvya (special variety of poetry ch. 337) as well as with the drama (ch. 339). Although Rasa has not been included in the definition, it has been later on described as the life ($j\bar{\imath}vita$) of a $k\bar{a}vya^4$ and treated in some detail in the chapters 339-342. Rīti has been once mentioned along with Vṛtti, Pravṛtti, Bhāva, Rasa and Guna in connection with mahākāvya (337/31-32) and has again been treated in fuller detail in connection with the drama (ch. 340) where Rīti, Vttti and Pravrtti constitute special cases of Anubhāva. We have seen that Bharata's Gunas, Dosas and Alamkāras constitute vācikābhinaya or anubhāva which calls forth Rasa. The Purāna generally follows the same process in the treatment of the Rītis, the Vrttis and the Prayrttis: but accepted though they are as anubhāvas they do not all constitute vācikābhinua.

^{3.} Psychological Basis of Alankāra Literature in the Sir Asutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Volumes, Orientalia, Part, 2, p. 675.

^{4.} vāz-vaidagdhya-pradhāne' pi rasa evātra jīvitam (337/33).

This couplet has been quoted by Viśvanātha in support of his definition of kāvya (S.D. ch. i, p. 17).

^{5.} The anubhāva has been generally defined as manovāg-buddhi-vapuṣām....ārambhah...(339/44-45) implying (i) external manifestations due to peculiar mental action (mana ārambha 339/46)

They are characterised as $buddhy\bar{a}rambha$ or intellectual effort which helps the comprehension of the art of dramatic speech, $(v\bar{a}coyuktih=v\bar{a}g\bar{a}rambhah\ 339/51)$. The expression $v\bar{a}gvidy\bar{a}$ -sampratij $n\bar{a}ne$ (in the matter of understanding the art of speech 340/1) is a more direct evidence justifying our interpretation that the Rītis etc. help the proper understanding of $\bar{a}l\bar{a}pa$, $pral\bar{a}pa$ etc. (339/51-52) which are special cases of $v\bar{a}g\bar{a}rambha$ (339/51) or $v\bar{a}gvidy\bar{a}$ (340/1) or the art of dramatic speech.

- (ii) mode of dramatic speech (vācoyuktih=vāgārambhah 339/51) (iii) intellectual effort giving rise to the striking mode of dramatic speech (buddhyārambha 339/54) and (iv) physical movements of the actor (sarīrārambha 341/1) which represent respectively (i) sāttvika (ii) vācika (iii) āhārya and (iv) āngika abhinayas (342/2). It ought to be noted, in this connection, that all the buddhyārambha anubhāvas do not come under āhārvābhinava. Rīti comes under vācikābhinaya, Pravrtti under āhāryābhinaya, and the vrttis under different abhinayas according to the peculiar nature of its different varieties. The reading buddhyarambhapravrttayah in 342/2 is a defective one and it cannot lead us any definite interpretation. V. Raghavan's exposition (buddhyārambhesu trisu, yā trtīyā, pravrttir iti etc. I. H. O. Vol. X, No. 4, p. 770) is open to objection in more ways than one. How can this word be singled out from the entire compound word in order to connect it with the word aharyah? Why should Prayrtti be in the plural number? The compound of the seventh case-ending buddhyārambheşu (nirdhārana) with this word, though permissible, stands condemned on that score.
- 6. The reading bodhāya eşa vyāpārah subuddhyārambha işyate (in verse 54, ch. 339) seems to be corrupt. Maintaining the reading as it is, it is difficult to connect the word bodhāya with vāgārambha (verse 51) with which it should bear, from the context, a clear relationship. Should the reading be eṣām bodhāya vyāpāro buddhyārambha itīṣyate so that eṣām may refer to the different varieties (ālāpa etc.) of buddhyārambha? This reading appears to be in conformity with what the author has said in 339/44-45 (manovāg-buddhi-vapuṣām....ārambhaḥ) and in 342/2 (stambhādiḥ sāttvika....āhāryo buddhyārambha-pravṛttayah.)

But while the Purāṇakāra's Rīti, Vṛtti and Pravṛtti all ultimately go to constitute <code>anubhāva</code>, the writer, does not explicitly state whether these call forth Rasa. Of course the manner and context, in which the treatment of <code>vibhāvas</code> and <code>anubhāvas</code> has been brought in, undoubtedly show that these are factors in the realisation of Rasa. But the Purāṇakāra does not explain the process of this realisation nor does he clearly discuss the relation between the Rītis and Rasa which can be understood only indirectly from the use of the <code>vāgvidyā-sampratijñāne</code> in beginning of the chapter of Rītis.

The Rītis here have no relation with the Gunas which have been treated afterwards as absolute entities. They constitute such poetic factors as help the proper understanding of vāgārambha or mode of dramatic speech which must be differentiated from the mode of poetic speech (girām mārga) of Dandin. Dandin's treatment of girām mārga is general whereas the Purānakāra's treatment of Riti comes in connection with discussion about abhinaya which applies directly and explicitly to the drama. But this theoretic distinction is more apparent than real, for the fundamentals of poetry and of the drama have not been very sharply kept apart. The Rasas as well as the Ritis appear to have been equally associated with poetry and drama. And as a matter of fact all the elements, namely. Vrtti, Pravrtti, Bhāva, Rīti, Guna and Rasa have been mentioned as belonging to mahākāvya also⁸. Moreover.

^{7.} In 339/35 it has been remarked that poets should deal with Rasas and Bhāvas in poetry (havibhir yojanīyā vai bhāvāḥ kāvyādike rasāḥ) and immediately after that the vibhāvas and anubhāvas have been defined and discussed in detail.

^{8.} sarva-vṛtti-pravṛttañca sarva-bhāva-prabhāvitam | sarva-rīti-rasair juṣṭam puṣṭam guṇa-vibhūṣaṇaih ||

the treatment of Alamkāras which have been defined as kāvyašobhākara dharma (342/17) commences at the middle of a chapter that begins with dramatic representation (abhinaya). All this tends to show that the purāṇakāra did not observe a theoretical distinction between the fundamentals of poetry and drama—the characteristics of both having been dealt in a more or less confused and uncritical way without any sharp line of demarcation. This lack of consistency was perhaps due to a merely eclectic and uncritical attempt to make a compilation of previous speculations, both orthodox and unorthodox.

The Purāṇa mentions four Rītis, namely, Pāñcālī, Gaudī, Vaidarbhī and Lāṭī, the last being added to Vāmana's enumeration of three Rītis. The use of the expressions like gaudadeśīya and lāṭaja' clearly indicates that the writer, like Vāmana, held the same view that the names of Rītis were derived from the names of the countries in which they were specially favoured. We have already seen that the Rītis in the Purāṇa have not been distinguished from one another by the presence or absence of certain poetic excellences (Guṇas). They have been classified according to (1) the absence or presence in varying degrees of compound words¹o (2) the

340, i.

vāgvidyā-sampratijāāne rītih sā pi caturvidhā | pāñcālī gaudadesīyā vaidarbhī lāṭajā tathā ||

^{10.} Rudrața îs the first writer to bring in compound words in connection with the Rīti. He mentions four Rītis of which Vaidarbhī does not contain compounds (vṛtter asamāsāya vaidarbhī rītir ekaiva.....Kāvyālamkāra, 11,6 c-d), while varying degrees of compound words are found in Pāncālī—Lāṭīyā and Gauḍīyā. He says:—

exuberance or paucity of metaphorical expressions and (3) the variations in the degrees of softness, if present. Thus the Pāñcālī must be soft in diction (mrdvī...... 340, 2a) endowed with metaphorical expressions (upacāra-yutā.....340, 2a) and must contain short compounds (hrasva-vigrahā.....340, 2b). The Gaudīyā, on the other hand, contains long compounds dīrgha-vigrahā.....340, 2d)

It is to be noted that Rudrata makes no mention of the technical Gunas accepted by other writers but in connection with his description of $v\bar{a}kya$ (ii, 7-8), he emphasises the characteristics which a $v\bar{a}kya$ ought to possess. There it is implied that a sentence should contain words which

- (1) are agreeable, (carupadam),
- (2) are not meaningless in the particular context (pustartha-).
 - (3) are quite expressive of the sense required (vāçaka-).
- (4) are capable of standing a scrutiny (kṣodakṣamam probably suggesting the absence of what is vulgar and commonplace).
 - (5) free from any touch of blemishes (aksunnam).
- (6) stand in exact need of the sense (i.e. are neither more nor less than what are required = anyūnādhika-)
- (7) maintain the proper sequence (sukrama.)

 In the next kārikā (i.e. 1, 9) Rudraţa names these characteristics as excellences of words (padaguṇa) and remarks that besides possessing the above excellences, the sentence should be elegant (racayet tameva sabdam racanāyā yaḥ karoti cārutvam | satyapi sakala-yathodita-padaguṇa-sāmye'bhidhāneṣu ||) And what does this elegance contribute to ? He says that it contributes to a 'grace of structure' (sannivesa cārutvam.....ii, 10) which is present in expressions like tarupanktir asankaṭaiva mune (the row of trees occupies a wide space, oh sage! instead of tarvālyurvevarṣe (taru+āli+uru+eva+ṛṣe). It will appear, therefore, that what Rudraţa values most is the beauty of wordstructure, free from any touch of poetic defects. He seems to be one of those who consider absence of fault to be an excellence in itself,

and is of uncertain import (anavasthita-sandarbhā..... 340, 2c)¹¹. The Vaidarbhī must be absolutely free from compound words (mukta-vigrahā.....340, 3d) and the composition should not be too soft (nāti-komala-sandarbhā.....340, 3c), it should usually be devoid of metaphorical expressions and even when these are present there must not be too many of them (upacārair na bahubhir upacārair vivarjitā.....340, 3a-b)¹². And

^{11.} anavasthita-sandarbhā literally means 'where composition is of an unsettled nature'. It may also mean 'where a regular connection is lacking'. It is not fully clear what the expressions like anavasthita-sandarbhā or sphuta-sandarbhā really mean or what this uncertainty or clarity is due to. The uncertainty may be the effect of either playing upon words in the form of intonation pun or paranomasia or if strictly applied to drama it may be due to what we call 'dramatic irony' where the poet aims at presenting some fact beyond what is actually understood from the words used by the speaker. Here the sandarbha (composition or speech) is anavasthita (unsettled or uncertain) because it produces one effect upon the person spoken to and another on the audience. But the difficulty of explaining the expression, as referring to dramatic irony is that this latter is not limited to any particular Rīti e.g. Gaudī (and for the matter of that to a mode of dramatic speech) as belonging to a particular country but it is a special case of dramatic technique which may occur in any drama of any country. If, on the other hand, these expressions (anavasthita-sandarbha and sphuta-sandarbha) are explained in connection with poetry in general the latter expression may bring in the idea of a clarity of sense such as is involved in Dandin's Prasada and Arthavyakti Gunas and the former may stand for the reverse of that. But then should clarity of sense be present only in Lati and in no other Riti? And why should Gaudiva be marked by a veritable defect?

^{12.} The reading appears to be corrupt. Our interpretation has been based upon taking the first upacāraih as upacārair lakṣitā.

lastly in Latiya the compound words must not shine too prominently (nāti-risphutavigrahā.....340, 4b)—the composition should be clear and easily understandable (sphuta-sandarbhā.....340, 4a) and there should not be a long series of metaphorical expressions¹³. As of the Rītis so of the Vrttis the Purānakāra gives no general definition, but the characteristic feature of the Vrtti has been described as Kriyāsvavisamā (=keeping in strict accordance with the action of the drama..... 340, 5a)14. No sharp distinction has been drawn between the Riti and the Vrtti. Not a word has been spoken to define describe or explain Prayrtti which has been mentioned as a division of buddhyārambha like Rīti and Vrtti in 339, 54. This makes it highly probable that the present chapter of the work has not come down to us in complete form as noted by V. Raghavan (loc. cit).

Judging the Purāṇa's Rītis as they are it would appear that they are not themselves the intellectual efforts (buddhyārambha) of the actor but their inclusion under

^{13.} The reading parityaktābhi bhūyo'pi rupacārair udāhṛtā as found in the printed text is undoubtedly obscure. We would accept V. Raghavan's emendation parityaktātibhūyobhir upacārair udāhṛta. (I. H. Q. Vol. IX, No. 4, p. 774) which gives a definite sense. We have explained the Rītis as they appear from the text of the Agnipurāṇa studied independently. If they are read in the light of the Rītis in Bhoja's Śṃgāraprakāśa as quoted by V. Raghavan (loc. cit.) it appears that the first foot of 340/3 (upacārair na bahubhih) should be taken with Gauḍīyā. So that it may be equivalent to the expression nātyupacāra-vṛttimat one of the characteristics of Bhoja's Gauḍīyā. The last three feet of 340/3 would then give us the character of the Purāṇakāra's Vaidarbhī and the expression upacārair vivarjitā (A.P.) would correspond to anupacāra-vṛttimat (Ś.P. as quoted by Mr. Raghavan....loc. cit.)

^{14.} We shall see hereafter that the Riti depends for its effect on words and the Vitti on action.

the buddhyārambha variety of anubhāva may be justified in the sense that they are the external manifestations of the intellectual skill of the writer. One who is versed in these may understand the art of the dramatic speech since the function of the Ritis has been explicitly mentioned as helping understanding of that art (vāgvidyā-sampratijnāne.....340, 1a). Now, although the Ritis here stand somewhat like means to an end yet it is probably implied that dramatic speech itself is restricted to some or all of these Ritis: in other words the different varieties of dramatic speech (vāgārambha) like ālāpa pralāpa etc. (339, 51-53) find their expressions in short or long compounds, soft or hard syllables and metaphorical expressions which all form the basis of If one, with a knowledge of the Ritis the Ritis. which consist of nothing but the absence or presence of compound words and metaphorical expressions, is entitled to the proper understanding of dramatic speech the only conclusion possible is that the Rītis form a part and parcel of the different varieties of dramatic speech even if they are not identical with them. In brief, the Ritis as treated in the Agnipurana may be taken to mean the particular mode of diction in which the dramatic characters speak. But the Purāṇakāra's treatment of the Rītis along with Vrttis and Pravrttis in connection with the drama stands unique in the history of Sanskrit poetics and dramaturgy and in spite of explaining them in connection with drama they can unhesitatingly be regarded as having a wider application to poetry in general.

As for the classification of the Vrttis, he follows partly the principle in Bharata's Nāṭyaśāstra (ch. XX. K. M. Text) with this difference that the Vrttis here have not been assigned to any particular Rasa. We have seen that Bharata and following him other writers of dramaturgy assign the Kaiśiki Vrtti to Śṛṅgāra, Hāṣya and Karuṇa.

The Purāṇakāra's description of Vṛtti as kriyāsvaviṣamā (340-5a or kriyāsu niyamaḥ=that guides the action of the drama) appears to imply that they depend for their effect upon the action of the drama and not upon the words or style thereof, and it is here that the Vṛttis are distinguished from the Rītis.

Coming to the Gunas the Purānakāra remarks15 at the very outset that poetry, without Gunas cannot be charming even if it is endowed with Alamkāras which would lead the reader for a moment to believe as if he assigns a more important place to the Gunas than to the Alamkāras like his predecessors of the Rīti school. But his definition of Guna as 'that which imparts a great charm to poetry (yah kāvye mahatīm chāyām anugrhnāti ...346, 3a) is not fundamentally different from that of Alamkāra as 'attributes that beautify poetry (kāvyaśobhākarā dharmāh...342, 17). The latter definition is borrowed verbatim from Dandin but taking the two definitions together it is not clear whether the Gunas constitute a more important element than the Alamkāras in the treatment of the Purāṇakāra. As regards this distinction between the Guna and the Alainkāra the Purānakāra does not seem to have availed himself of the more clear-cut treatment of Vāmana and Dandin. As a matter of fact the fundamental distinction between Gunas and Alamkāras is not at all apparent in his treatment, and he has incorporated in some of his Alamkāras such characteristics as have been associated with Gunas by other writers.16

^{15.} alamkṛtam api prītyai na kāvyam nirgunam bhavet | vapuṣyalalite strīnām hāro bhārāyate param || (346, 1).

^{16.} He borrows the definition of Dandin's Samādhi Guņa word for word but treats it in connection with Lakṣaṇā which comes in the process of dealing with abhivyakti as one of the six

The relation between Gunas and Dosas in the Purāna appears to be the same as in the treatment of other writers. The Dosa has been described as udvega-janako dosah sabhyānām (347, 1) i.e. Dosa creates a sense of aversion in the readers—which is evidently the result of its destroying the poetic effect which the Guna serves to heighten. Thus, the Purānakāra's position is not at all different from that of Vāmana in whose opinion the Dosas bear characteristics opposite to those of the Gunas and vice versa. If so, it may be argued that there is 'no necessity for mentioning the Gunas separately' meaning thereby that the Gunas should be understood by implication from the Dosas. To this the Purānakāra replies that Gunas like Slesa and Dosas like Güdhartha have been clearly distinguished. 17 By this he perhaps suggests that it is not to be understood that Slesa and such other Gunas are always the exact opposite of Dosas like Güdhartha etc. but that the Gunas as a class ought to be distinguished from the Dosas as such in this that the effect of the one upon poetry and consequently upon the reader will be quite opposite to that of the other. The simple fact deducible therefrom will be that the Gunas adorn poetry and please the reader, while the Dosas mar the poetic effect and produce a sense of aversion in his mind.

sabdārthālamkāras (345, 2) Daņdin's Samādhi Guņa, as we have previously seen, 'is a mode of poetic transference resting finally on Lakṣanā'. But Lakṣaṇā itself is treated by the Post-dhvani writers like Mammaţa neither under the Guṇas nor under the Alamkāras but separately as a mode of comprehension of the meanings of words and expressions.

^{17.} na ca vācyam guņe doṣābhāva eva bhaviṣyati |
guṇāḥ śleṣādayo doṣā guḍhārthādyāḥ pṛthak kṛtaḥ |
(346, 2c-d)

The Purāna-kāra's classification of the Gunas is somewhat remarkable. We have seen that neither Bharata nor Dandin gave us any classification of the Gunas. It was Vāmana who for the first time classified each of the Gunas under two heads according as it belonged to the word or to the sense, thus doubling the number of the traditional Gunas. But the Purāna-kāra deviates from that traditional number and sometimes from nomenclature, and in addition to Vamana's classification he evolves a third set of Gunas belonging to the word as well as to the sense. We have seen (p. 159) that Bhoja and Prakāśavarsa also enumerate three sets of Gunas but their classification differs from the Purāna-kāra's in this that the third set which they enumerate is not restricted to those Gunas that belong both to the word and to the sense but it deals with Dosas which have ceased to be such on account of their not marring the poetic effect. It is remarkable that the Purāṇa-kāra also speaks of Dosas ceasing to be such under special circumstances 18 but unlike what we find in Bhoja the treatment and Prakāśavarsa of this particular type of his Dosas does not constitute a technical set of Gunas. The Purānakāra classifies the Gunas first under two heads: Sāmānya and Vaiśesika (346, 3c-d). The Sāmānya has further been classified (346, 4c-d)

^{18.} The following shows some of the instances where Dosas do not disturb the poetic effect in the opinion of the Purāṇa-kāra, (1) Gūḍhārthatva or hidden meaning does not produce aversion (na duḥkhākaroti...347, 25a-b) in a difficult composition (duṣkare 347, 25b) which possibly refers to puzzles and conundrums, (2) Grāmyatā or inelegance is not a fault (na grāmyatodvegakarī 347, 25c) when it occurs in the speech of a vulgar or illiterate person or its use is sanctioned in the śāstra (prasiddher loka-śāstrayoḥ 347, 25d). (3) Difference in number, gender and case-endings (vibhakti-saṅkhyā-lingānām bhinnatvam 347, 29a-d) between the upamāna and the upameya (upamāno-pameyayoḥ 347, 29d) is sanctioned where such difference does not disturb the wise mind (yatrodvego na dhīmatām 347 | 29.b.).

into (1) the śabda-guṇa (2) the artha-guṇa and (3) the ubhaya-guṇa. The śabda-guṇas have been enumerated as seven. Satī and Yaugikī appear like two technical Guṇas but Mr. Raghavan (loc. cit.) has already shown that the reading here is corrupt. These are not found in the list of definitions where Ojas (346, 10a-b) replaces them. Thus the total number of śabda-guṇas is really six.

I. Śleṣa—It is defined to be a particular arrangement of words which produces a coalescence or cohesiveness in the structure (suśliṣṭa-sanniveśatvain śabdānām...346, 6c-d). Although it has not been made clear what this cohesiveness is due to, yet it may be generally assumed that this Guṇa of the Purāṇa incorporates in it characteristics of Vāmana's śabda-guṇa Ojas which appears to correspond partly to Daṇḍin's Śleṣa.

II. Lālitya—It is said to exist where the letters are already combined in the words by grammatical guṇa, ādeśa etc. and there is hardly any necessity of further euphonic combinations¹⁹.

(346,7).

It is not known what the author really means. If the changes due to grammatical guna, adesa etc. be accepted, it is difficult to see why rules of euphonic combination, if applicable, should be debarred from being used. Does this Guna bear any idea of the negation of Kastatva-doşa which consists in inconvenience of pronunciation (asukhoccūryamānatvam, 347, 10) due, for instance, to bad sandhi? In that case Lalitya would exist in compositions where sandhi is permissible only where it is absolutely necessary, (e.g. where the syllables combine into a single word or where the combination takes place between the root and its prefix etc.), or where it, being optional, does not give rise to the Kastatvadosa. It would appear, therefore, that in Uttara-rāmacarita VI, 19 vīro rasah kimayam aityuta darpa eva, the sandhi in aiti (ā+eti) is absolutely necessary but the word-structure is such as to create a difficulty in utterance if aiti is further combined with uta.

gunūdešādinā pūrvam pada-sambaddham akṣaram | yatra sandhīyate naiva tallālityam udāhṛtam ||

III. The printed text appears to be corrupt in this place. The definition of Gāmbhīrya should probably be

višiṣṭa-lakṣaṇollekha-lekhyanuttāna-śabdagam I gāmbhīryaṁ kathayantyāryās tad evānye suśabdatām 1

Here lakṣaṇa evidently refers to the entities sup and tin—the two well-marked divisions of pada. viśiṣṭollekha means vyutpatti. lekhi means $camatk\bar{a}rak\bar{a}ri$. $utt\bar{a}na$ is open or, spreading out over the surface.

The definition would then mean that Gāmbhīrya is that Guṇa which is beautiful on account of the particular mention of sup and tin and which does not lie on the surface of the expression (anuttāna-śabdagam) or the direct meaning of words. Thus, Gāmbhīrya of the Agnipurāṇa appears to correspond partly to the śabda-guṇa Gāmbhirya of Bhoja (VII. B. p. 163). The expression viśiṣṭa-lakṣaṇollekha would remind us of another Guṇa Suśabdatā of Bhoja (p. 163) which the Agnipurāṇa thinks to be covered by the expression tad evānye suśabdatām. It is quite possible that the Purāṇakāra includes two different Guṇas (Gāmbhīrya and Suśabdatā) of Bhoja in his Gāmbhīrya and tries to do away with the twenty-four Guṇas found in Bhoja's Sarasvatī-kaṇṭhābharaṇa.

- IV. Sukamāratā—It consists in words composed mostly of unharsh syllables (aniṣṭhurākṣara-prāya-śabdatā.....346, 9a-b). It ought to be noted that this definition bears proof of the Purāṇa-kāra's close borrowing from Daṇḍin and therefore it may be explained in the light of the latter's Guṇa of the same name. (ch. V. p. 72).
- V. Audārya—It consists of clearness of expressions (uttānpadatā.....346, 9c) and of praise-worthy epithets (yutam ślāghyair viśeṣaṇaiḥ.....346, 9d). This appears to include Bhoja's Prasāda p. (160) and Udāttatā. (p. 162).
- VI. Ojas—It consists in the super-abundance of compound words and it forms the life-breath of metrical

and other composition. As in some of the previous instances, the definition of this Guṇa is not the Purāṇa-kāra's own but derived from Daṇḍin²o.

The artha-guṇas are enumerated as six in number and they have been thus characterised:—

- I. Mādhurya—It consists in maintaining tranquil forbearance and calmness of appearance under the influence of anger and malice²¹.
- II. Samvidhāna—It exists where there is effort (pari-karaḥ...346, 13c) to gain a wished-for object (apekṣita-siddhaye...346, 13d).
- III. Komalatā—It is characterised as a special arrangement of words (sanniveša-višiṣṭatā...346, 14b) which is free from harshness and inelegance (kāṭhinyādi-nirmukta...346, 14a) and which does not at the same time give rise to laxity (tiraskṛṭyaiva mṛḍutām bhāti...346, 14c-d). It is difficult to see what this difinition exactly means. As it is, it appears to stand midway between the two extreme structures of composition—harsh and loose.
- IV. Udāratā—It exists where the exact inner significance (āśayasyātisauṣṭhavam...346, 15) is very easily comprehended (literally: falls to one's comprehension at

^{20.} Ojah samāsa-bhūyastvam etat padyādi-jīvitam.....346, 10a-b). For padyādi an alternative reading gadyādi has been suggested in the foot-note.

^{21.} The construction of the verse (krodhersyākāragāmbhīrryam mādhuryam dhairyagāhitā...346, 13a-b) is peculiar. The seventh case-ending appears to have been dropped in krodhersyā. Bhoja, in his definition of artha-mādhurya, appears to make the construction clear (krodhādāvapy atīvratā.....i, 8ob,). MM. Panchanan Tarkaratna's reading: krodhersyā-kāra-gāmbhīryam mādhuryam dhairya-gāhitā...(346, 13. ed. Vangavasi Press, Calcutta) is also not justifiable.

even a superficial attempt -lakṣyate sthūla-lakṣatva -pravṛtteḥ...346, 15a-b).²

- V. Praudhi—It is said to consist in mature logical reasonings praudhā yuktayo hetugarbhinyah...346, 16c-d) that help the completion nirvāhasyopapādikāh...346, 16b) of the subject of discourse.² ³
- VI. Sāmayikatā—consists in the apprehension of that particular sense where the convention is applied either by itself i.e. independently or otherwise (as for instance on the basis of something like a derivative meaning.)²⁺

The Ubhaya-guṇa again has been classified under six different heads as follows:—

I. Prasāda—It consists in the use of words of which the meanings are too well-known suprasiddhārthapadatā... 346, 19c).

svatantrasyānyatantrasya rāddhāntaḥ (?) samayo yatah tatra vyutpattir arthasya yā sāmayikateti sā ll 346 | 17.

As hinted by Mr. Raghavan (loc cit) this Guna may be illustrated by verses like

^{22.} MM. Panchanan Tarkaratna (op. cit.) rightly reads Olaksyaiva.

^{23.} The reading abhipretam prati hatam.....(346, 16a) is corrupt. MM. Panchanan Tarkaratna (op. cit.) reads abhipretam prati yatah...which appears to be correct.

^{24.} The reading in the printed text is very corrupt. Should we accept the reading rāddhāntaḥ (as suggested in the foot note) for bāhṣāntaḥ? samayogataḥ should probably be samayo yataḥ. The text would then stand thus:—

virahiņī-gaņa-carvaņa-sādhanam vidhur ato dvijarāja
 iti smṛtaḥ (Naiṣadha, IV 72 c-d).

⁽²⁾ sa kṣatriyas trāṇasahaḥ satām yas tat kārmukam karmasu yasya saktiḥ # kirāta, III 48, a-b.

- II. Saubhāgya—It implies, like Daṇḍin's Udāratā, an elevation consisting of the expression of some high merit.^{2.5} It is evident that in his attempt to follow Daṇḍin's definition our author has lost all sense of consistency and the mention of udāratā in this connection raises a doubt whether this Guṇa is to be named Saubhāgya or we are to understand that the Guṇa Udāratā has a three fold characteristic according as it belongs to the śabda, to the artha or to both.
- III. Yathāsamkhya—implies subsequent mention of things in the order of things previously mentioned *i. e.* respective statement, first for first, second for second and so on. This corresponds to the Yathāsamkhya alamkāra of later writers ²⁶
- IV. Prāśastya—It consists in describing in appropriate time even horrible objects in unharsh *i. e.* agreeable words and expressions.²⁷ It may partially approximate to Vāmana's arthaguṇa Saukumārya, where inauspicious statements like mṛtam etc. are avoided by the use of some agreeable expressions like yaśaḥśeṣaṁ gatam etc. This corresponds to the arthaguṇa Suśabdatā of Bhoja (vii B. P.).

^{25.} utkarşavān guṇaḥ kaścid yasminnukte pratīyate |
tat saubhūgyam udāratvam pravadanti manīṣiṇaḥ ||
346, 20.

^{26.} The printed text gives the definition as yathāsamkhyam anuddešah sāmānyam atidišyate 346, 21a-b. anuddešah is apparently corrupted for anūddešah. sāmānyam atidišyate is also not a happy reading.

^{27.} śamaye varnaniyasya dārunasyāpi vastunah | 346, 21c-d adāruņena śabdena prāśastyam upavarnanam || 346, 220-b)

V. Pāka—maturity which implies the highest stage of perfection of a poetic composition.²⁸ It has got four varieties of which two only, viz, mṛdvikā-pāka and nārikelapāka have been mentioned or defined. The mṛdvikāpāka is said to exist where a particular composition is sweet—both at the beginning and at the end (ādāv-ante ca saurasyam, 346, 23c).

VI. Rāga—It is a particular quality used with a view to attain (the beauty of) poetry. $^{2\,9}$

From the above it will be evident that the author's treatment of the Guṇas as of all other poetic elements is vague, unsystematic, eclectic and uncritical. It is really a matter of surprise that in spite of having before him such developed schemes of Guṇa and Rīti as enunciated

28. uccaih parinatih kā'pi pāka ityabhidhīyate.

346, 22c-d

The naturally vague and unsystematic treatment of the author makes difficult to grasp what this maturity is due to. He includes Pāka under the Guṇas but Rājaśekhara, who has given a very interesting history of the earlier views on Pāka, means by it sauśabdya (Kāvyamīmāmsā p. 20, 1.6) or general excellence of language; and in one of the views that he cites the scope of Pāka is given as very wide, inasmuch as it forms the basis on which the different poetic elements like Guṇa, Alamkāra and Rīti as well as the process of the exact choice of words according to their sense (guṇālamkāra-rītyukti-sabdārtha-grathana-kramak—ibid, 1.17) stand. For a connected history of Pāka the reader is referred to Sanskrit Poetics (Vol. II, p. 300) where its author has given a comprehensive treatment of this poetic factor.

29. kāvyecchāyā višeso yah sa rāga iti gīyate | 346, 24a-b.

This definition is extremely vague. This is the characteristic of all the different embellishing elements of poetry. Broad characteristics are attributed to the general terms like Guṇas and Alamkāras and the individual Guṇa ought to show in what particular way it helps to accomplish poetical objects.

by the adherents of the Riti school, he did not avail himself properly of their system nor did he attempt to improve upon them. Should we understand with some scholars that the Agnipurana was the first treatise to supply crude materials to the writers of the different schools of Alamkara Śastra, each of whom might have developed his own system in his own way? But his lavish borrowings, either in letter or in spirit in a regularly unsystematic way from all the earlier works of poetics and dramaturgy, exclude that possibility. A work, which is claimed as the source of an important branch of knowledge, should possess an individual tone and a system of its own, however crude and undeveloped its treatment and ideas might be, and it is impossible to believe that such a store-house of heterogeneous and conflicting views could have formed the starting point of a technical Śāstra.

The classification of the Guṇas again in this work is somewhat vague. For instance, it has not clearly explained the distinction between the Sāmānya and Vaiśeṣika³⁰ sets of Guṇas. The definitions that have been given clear nothing but leave the reader to judge for himself the character of these two sets of Guṇas. The Sāmānya Guṇa has been defined as Sarvasādhāranībhūtah (—that which belongs to all, 346, 4a) implying perhaps that the different varieties of Sāmānya Guṇa e.g., šabdagata, arthagata and ubhayagata, which are being

^{30.} The terms sāmānya and višeṣa he uses also in connection with the drama (338, 4-5). The sāmānya embraces all the general characteristics of a drama, viz. Rasa with all its accessaries, abhinaya, anka, etc. which scatter all over the drama (sāmānyam sarvaviṣayam......sarvatraivopasarpanāt 338, 5-6) while višeṣa appears to be applied in connection with the nāndī—the arthaprakṛtis (like bīja—vindu etc.) which occupy any specific part of the drama.

characterised here may be practised by all classes of writers. But with regard to the Vaiśeṣika Guṇa the author has got nothing to say except giving a general definition which runs as Vaiśeṣikaḥ parijñeyo yaḥ svalakṣaṇa-gocaraḥ (346, 25c-d). It probably means that these excellences are based upon the particular (viśeṣa) characteristic of an individual author and must be defined in terms of his own peculiar ideas (sva-lakṣaṇa-gocaraḥ) for what lies in the power of a particular individual cannot be brought under the scope of hard and fast rules.

Amongst the Gunas enumerated and defined by the Purānakāra we have seen that some follow closely the treatment of Dandin or Vāmana or Bhoja and as such they have to be interpreted in the light of their treatment while the rest of the Gunas must either have borrowed from sources unknown to us or characterised by the author himself. Even if the latter be taken to be his original contributions, the isolated borrowings, in which he has evidently lost the spirit of the earlier sources, make his position still worse. If he has borrowed. he has done it uncritically; if he has at all made original contributions he has proved a failure. Most of the definitions are unintelligible; they leave the reader to guess what they mean. Even illustrations have not been given so as to help the reader in understanding their characteristics. The character of the arthagunas have not been distinctly kept apart from those of the śābdagunas or ubhayagunas. Thus, the question of arrangement (of words or letters) have crept even in the treatment of arthagunas. Two of his sabdagunas namely Satī and Yaugikī are given only in name, they have been neither defined nor characterised. Ojas has stealthily crept in the course of the definitions of the sabdagunas although it is not mentioned in the general list of enumeration of

the Gunas. Nothing more need be added to prove that if the author is systematic in anything it is in inconsistency. To explain this inconsistency we have only to admit that 'the Alamkāra-section in the Agnipurāna is chiefly a compilation by a writer who was himself no theorist but who...wanted to collect together and present a workable epitome...conforming in essentials to the teachings of no particular arthodox school' for no truer statement appears to have been ever made in connexion with this work.

Chapter VIII.

TREATMENT OF RĪTI AND GUŅA BY THE DHVANI AND POST-DHVANI THEORISTS.

It has been seen in the previous chapters that the Concepts of Riti and Guna received a different treatment at the hands of different writers of different periods in the early history of Sanskrit Poetics. Some of these writers dealt with only one of these Concepts while others knew and treated of both, either correlating one with the other or assigning to each of them an independent place in their system. Thus, Bharata dealt with the Concept of Guna only and he understood its importance so far as it constituted the anubhāva which helps the realisation of Rasa in the Drama. Bhāmaha referred to both Rīti and Guna but he did not express clearly his views about these two elements. Rudrata treated of Riti only and he understood by the term Riti a definite arrangement of words, compounded or uncompounded. He entirely ignored the Concept of Guna as accepted by other orthodox theorists. It was Dandin and Vamana, the adherents of the Riti School proper, who assigned to the Rītis and their constituent Gunas an important place in their respective systems. A proper disposition of words (according to their sense) was, in their opinion, the main thing to be considered in poetry; and in order to endow this disposition with a special (viśesa) charm they had to conceive a number of Gunas which were considered by them to be the most important element of poetry. There appeared also a class of writers who, though later in date

than the early Dhvani theorists did not follow the line of opinion formulated by them but propounded their theories of Rīti and Guṇa—some (e.g. Kuntaka) correlating them and characterising them in a manner peculiar to himself and others (e.g. Bhoja and the author of the Alamkāra portion of the Agnipurāṇa) treating them independently although conforming in a way to the manner of the earlier theorists.

A

ĀNANDAVARDHANA AND ABHINAVAGUPTA.

Prior to these last named writers the Dhvani theorists, came into the field headed by the Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana. We have seen that the one fact common to all the early writers was that they treated of the Concepts of Rīti and Guṇa as means of external embellisments of poetry. Even when Vāmana calls Rīti the ātmā or essense of poetry he means by it only external beauty of objective representation realised by means of certain standard excellences. The sole function of these elements as well as of Alamkāras was, in their treatment to embellish the external aspects of poetry, namely the word and its sense, and for this the Dhvani theorists rightly called them vācya-vācaka-cārutva-hetu.

The Dhvani theorists, however, judged poetry from quite a different angle of vision. Their changed outlook regarding the conception of poetic beauty itself naturally led them to reconsider the position of the different poetic elements. The Rasadhvani is considered by them to be the most prominent factor in poetry and in their opinion

other poetic elements stand subordinate to it. The charmingness or otherwise of the Guṇas, Alamkāras or Doṣas is judged by them not on their own account but in terms of the part they play towards the realisation of Rasa. It

 vācya-vācaka-cārutva-hetūnām vividhātmanām | rasādi-paratā yatra sa dhoaner viṣayo mataḥ || D.K. ii, 4.

The above occurs in a context (i.e. in the beginning of uddyota ii) where the authors of the Dhvanyaloka are discussing the subdivisions of Dhyani (suggested sense). Rasa (as also Bhāva etc.) comes under the akrama or asamlaksyakrama (as distinct from the samlaksyakrama) variety of one of the two broad classes of Dhvani viz. vivaksitānyaparavācya (as distinct from avivakṣitavācya), Rasa is asamlakṣyakrama (i.e. the process of of which cannot be clearly discerned) because it is realised simultaneously with the vācyārtha or denoted sense (rasādir artho hi sahaiva vācyenāvabhāsate, vrtti on D.K. ii, 3). When it occupies the principal position, rendering the vācyārtha subordinate to itself, it is a case of Dhvani (sa cāngitvenāvabhāsamāno dhvaner ātmā, vrtti on D. K. ii, 3) and it is then rightly called mukhya or angi artha. But, when the vacyartha occupies the principal position and the Rasa, Bhāva etc. stand subordinate to (i.e. are less charming than) it, then Rasa, Bhava etc. do not constitute a case of Dhvani but of Alamkaras like Rasavat, Preyas etc. This is set forth in the memorable verse:

pradhāne'nyatra vākyārthe yatrāngam tu rasādayah | kāvye tasminnalamkāro rasādir iti me matih | (D.K. ii, 5) that comes immediately afterwards.

This is by the way to show that Rasa does not necessarily occupy a principal position in Kāvya. It may sometimes become an alamikāra of the denoted sense, ceasing to be a case of Dhvani. But when Rasa is spoken of as the predominant factor, it appears to be taken as an instance of poetic ideal. Now, a question may arise—how far is it correct to say that the Rasa, which owes its very existence to the process of suggestion, (Dhvani, Vyañjanā or Abhivyakti) sometimes ceases to be a case of Dhvani? In this connection, if we consider the different meanings of the term Dhvani, the question would not present

is for this reason that the division of the Doşas into *nitya* and *anitya* varieties arises and some of the Doşas cease to be so when they are considered to be in consonance with the delineation of particular Rasas.² But when it is said that all these elements are subordinate to the *mukhya artha*, Rasa, it must not be understood that they all stand on the same level or in the same relationship with Rasa. It will be presently seen that the

any difficulty. (1) Dhvanikāra's definition of Dhvani as that class of poetry where the expressed sense is subordinate to the suggested sense (D.K. i, 13) is very well-known and it has been utilised by Mammața (K.P. sūtra 2, p. 19) and Viśvanātha (S. D. kar 251. p. 213). Besides Candidasa has shown clearly (after Locana p. 33) that the term may also imply (2) the suggested sense itself, (3) the process through which that sense is realised, (4) the expressed sense or the suggestive word and (5) the apprehension itself of Rasa (odipikā, p. 17). Hence it would appear that although Rasa is realised through the process of Dhvani (suggestion), yet it may constitute the gunzbhutavyangya (i.e. the second) class of poetry instead of the dhvani (i.e. the highest) class, specially when it is conceded that the Rasa may in certain cases be less charming than the vācyārtha. Abhinava also remarks: (Locana pp. 70-71) abhivyajyante rasāh pratītyaiva ca rasyanta iti. tatrābhivvaktih bradhanataya bhavatu, apradhanataya va. pradhanatve dhvanih, anyathā rasādyalamkārāh.

2. śrutiduṣṭādayo doṣā anityā ye ca darśitāḥ |
dhvanyātmanyeva srṅgāre te heyā ityudāhṛtāḥ ||

(D. K. ii, 12)

Ananda's vṛtti runs on this:—.....dhvanyātmanyeva śṛṇgāre'ngitayā vyangve te heyā ityudāhṛtāḥ. anyathā hi teṣām
anityadoṣataiva na syāt. We have seen (p. 168. fn. 38) that
in Raudrarasa Śrutiduṣṭa (or Śrutikaṭu as Mammaṭa calls it)
is treated as a source of charm because there it fits in with the
situation depicted. But we should note that in Śṛṅgāra (as
also in Śānta, Adbhuta and Vīra, Olocana, p. 82) it is a veritable
defect.

Guṇas, according to the Dhyaṇi theorists, concern directly the inner nature of poetry while the Alamkāras constitute such factors as are more or less external. It will be of some interest to note that the most commonsense interpretation of the terms Guṇa and Alamkāra on the analogy of human virtues and ornaments, partially struck the earlier theorists when, for instance, Vāmana quoted a pair of verses where the Guṇas were likened to the youth (yauvana) or the natural grace (rūpa) of a lady and the Alamkāra to the artificial ornaments of her body³. But they brought in this analogy simply to demonstrate the essentiality of the element Guṇa in poetry, and they failed to explain the elements in relation to the underlying sentiment of a poem which, however, they totally ignored.

The Dhvanikāra, however, draws a distinction between the Guṇas and the Alainkāras in the following verse:—

tam artham avalambante ye'inginam te guṇāḥ smṛtāḥ l aingāśritās tvalamkārā mantavyāḥ kaṭakādivat 1

(D. K. ii, 7).

implying thereby that while the Guṇas belong to and are properties of Rasa the angi artha, the Alamkāras are related to the śabda and artha (aṅgāśritāḥ.) Ānandavardhana makes the character of the Guṇa more clear when he takes it to be analogous to the human virtues like heroism in his vṛtti on the above Kārika:—ye tamartham rasādi-lakṣaṇam santam avalambante te guṇāḥ śauryādivat. The kārikā quoted above gives us simply what may be called the sāmānya lakṣaṇa of the Guṇas and the Alamkāras i. e. it deals only with the fundamental point of distiction between the two elements. But if this kārikā is judged by itself, it seems that the respective scopes of the Guṇa and the Alamkāra are restricted and

^{3.} See ch. VI. p. fn. 5.

confined herein, as if the Guṇa had nothing to do with the śabda and artha and the Alamkāra nothing with the Rasadhvani. We shall therefore recollect at this stage Dhvanikāra's attitude towards the relationship between the Alamkāra and the Rasa, namely, that the existence of Alamkāra is justified according to the part it plays towards the ultimate realisation of Rasadhvani and shall then pass on to the definition of the individual Guṇas viśeṣa lakṣaṇa to understand fully the position of that element in the new theory of poetry.

Now it is a fact of common experience that the ornaments adorn the (external) body of a man. It applies similarly in the case of poetry of which word and sense constitute the body. But what relation may the Alamkara possibly bear to the underlying sentiment of a poem which is, just like the soul of a man, beyond the direct grasp of any Alamkāra? To understand this we must take recourse to Abhinava's comments (on the position of Alamkāra) which must have been utilised with some modification by later writers like Mammata when they explained clearly the different ways in which an Alamkara may function in a poetic composition. Abhinava means to say that the real cause is the dhvanyātmā (i.e. Rasadhyani) which the poetic figure ultimately decorates. Although the ornaments like necklace etc. are put on the body yet it is the soul which they really glorify by way of standing in propriety to the particular mental conditions of the man. For instance, a dead body does not shine with earrings and such other ornaments because here the soul, the real alainkārya, is non-existent. Then again, if the body of a hermit is decorated with an ornament, it only creates laughter on account of a lack of propriety.

^{4.} rasabhāvādi-tātparyam āsritya vinivešanam | alamkrtīnām sarvāsām alamkāratva-sādhanam |

And since there is nothing (proper or) improper with regard to the body as such, it follows that the soul is in fact the alainkārya because it is this latter that feels ultimately glorified by reason of the external decoration. Here Abhinava appears almost to have ignored the importance of the vācaka śabda or of the vācya artha as an alamkārya and his extreme position with regard to Rasa was probably responsible for this attitude. His immediate successors however consider the issue from an ordinary point of view, namely that, it is the human body which is directly adorned by the ornament and consequently they clearly lay it down that the Alāmkāras are characteristics chiefly of the śabda and the artha and if they embellish Rasa they do that only indirectly through the word and sense. The case with the Guna is just the reverse because it will be presently seen that the Gunas are primarily the properties of Rasa and they may be said to belong to śabda and artha only secondarily.

The Dhvanikāra mentions and characterises only three Guṇas, namely, Ojas (energy), Prasāda (lucidity) and Mādhurya (sweetness), instead of the usual ten of Bharata, Daṇḍin and Vāmana, and even more of other writers. The authors of the Dhvanyāloka put forward their own theories and establish these three Guṇas, but they do not attempt at criticizing or refuting the theory of ten Guṇas

Abhinava remarks in connection with the above harita (Olocana pp. 74-75). etad uktam bhavati-upamayā yadyabi vacyo'rtho'lamkriyate tathapi tasya tad evalamkaranam yad vyangyarthabhivyanjana-samarthyadhanam iti, vastuto dhvanvātmaivālainkārvah, katakakeyūrādibhir api hi sarīrasamaūtmaiva tattacittavrttivišesaucityasūcanātmavāvibhiścetana tathāhvacetanam śavaśarīram tayā'lamkriyate. kundalābhāti, alamkāryasyābhāvāt, yatisarīram dyupetam api na katakādiyuktam hāsyāvaham bhavati. alamkāryasyānaucityāt. na ca dehasya kiñcidanaucityam iti vastuta ātmaivālainkāryah. aham alamkrta ityabhimanat.

of earlier writers, which later theorists like Mammata, Viśvanātha and others have taken upon themselves to do. These three Gunas have been classified on the basis of the particular mental conditions involved in the perception of Rasa. The general definition (sāmānya lakṣana) of the Guna has presented to us the element only in its broad character, namely, that it belongs to the Rasa and naturally further light is necessary in the visesa laksana to form a definite idea about the nature of the element on the basis of the sāmānya laksana. Now, since there are eight or nine Rasas the question arises: Does a particular Guna belong to all the Rasas or only to some of them? And in what sense can it be said to belong to the Rasas? This is what is proposed to be discussed in the višesa laksana. Thus, Śrigāra is a Rasa which softens (lit. gladdens=prahlādanah, D. K. ii, Sb) the heart to a great extent and Mādhurya resides in a poem where this Rasa prevails. Similarly, dīpti, which is a mental condition involving a brilliant expansion of the heart, is taken to be the character of Rasas like Raudra. Ojas

^{6.} Divergence of opinion has prevailed among theorists over the exact number of Rasas and the whole issue has ultimately rested on the question whether Santa is to be reckoned as a separate Rasa. In theory of poetry however, this Rasa is accepted by almost all writers. Writers of dramaturgy object to its admissibility on the ground that a feeling of cessation from all activities cannot be represented on a stage. Jagannatha contends this by saying (Rasagangadhara, p. 30) that since Rasa is realised by the audience and not by the actor, Santa can well be admitted in drama also.

^{7.} srngāra eva madhuraḥ paraḥ prahlādano rasaḥ l tanmayam kāvyam āśritya mādhuryam pratitiṣṭhati || (D. K. ii, 8)

sṛṅgāra eva rasāntarāpekṣayā madhuraḥ prahlāda-hetutvāt prakāsanaparaḥ. sabdārthayoḥ kāvyasya sa mādhuryalakṣaņo guṇaḥ (vṛtti on the above, p. 79, Dhvanyāloka).

resides in the śabda and artha which are suggestive of these Rasas. And lastly, that quality of Kāvya which prevails through all Rasas and functions in all compositions (hence transparency of śabda and artha) is known as Prasāda. 9

It will appear that the definitions given by Dhvanikāra and \overline{A} nandavardhana's vrti on them do not help us to form any clear conception about the element and here, as elsewhere, we have to look upon Abhinava as an infallible guide in understanding their view-points. Thus, some important questions arise in this connection, namely.

- (1) When it is said that the Guṇas reside in the Kāvya (tanmayain kāvyam āśritya...ii, 8c implying śabdārtha=kāvyaśarīra) is it not inconsistent with the general definition of the element vix., that it belongs to the aigi artha?
- (2a) What is the relation of the mental conditions like druti, $d\bar{\imath}pti$ etc. with the Rasa? Are they identical with it? Or are they produced as its effect so as to be distinct from it?
 - 8. Raudrādayo rasā dīpt; ā lakṣyante kāvyavartinaḥ |
 tadvyaktihetū śabdārthāv āśrityaujo vyavasthitam |
 (D. K. ii, 10)

raudrādayo hi rasāh parām dīptim ujvalatām janayantīti lakṣaṇayā ta eva dīptir ityucyate. tatprakāṣanaparaḥ ṣabdo dīrghasamāsa-racanā-lamkṛtam vākyam (vṛtti on above, p. 80 op. cil.)

9. samarpakatvam kāvyasya yat tu sarvarasān prati |
sa prasādo guņo jneyah sarva-sādhāraņa-kriyah ||
(D. K. ii, 11.)

prasādastu svacchatā sabdārthayoh, sa ca sarvarasasādhāraņo guņah sarva-racanāsādhāraņas ceti.....(vrtti on above. op. cit, p. 82.)

(2b) In any case how does the question of conceiving a separate element 'Guṇa' arise at all? When its existence cannot be clearly and independently felt, may it not be taken to merge its identity in Rasa?

We may just attempt at a discussion of these issues on the basis of the teachings of Abhinava. The mental condition itself is primarily the Guna. 10 Thus, the Gunas, Ojas, Prasāda and Mādhurya exist respectively in the form of the three mental conditions $d\bar{\imath}pti$ (expansion), samarpakatva or vyāpakatva (pervasion) and ārdratā or druti (melting) which are evoked only in the process of the realisation of Rasa and so the Guna has, according to the Dhyani theorists, an inseparable association with that element i.e. the question of the Guna does not, in their opinion, arise when there is no Rasa. Hence, Rasa is the ultimate cause (kārana) of which the Guna (in the form of the mental condition druti or dipti or vyāpti) is produced as an effect (kārya). So, when it is said that expansion or $d\bar{\imath}pti$ is the character of Rasas like Raudra etc. there is apparently a merging of the Guna into the Rasa or superimposition of the $k\bar{a}rya$ on the $k\bar{a}rana$. But this merging or superimposition occurs as a matter of course in the realisation of Rasa, which, involving as it does an absolute state of mental relish, renders it impossible for the relisher at that stage to distinguish between the cause and the effect.

This may no doubt lead one to doubt the necessity of recognising the Guna as a separate poetic element. But since the Dhvani theorists appear to have made it a point to give full recognition to all the poetic elements accepted

^{10.} dīplih pratipattur hṛdaye vibhā(kā)sa-vistāra-prajvalat-svabhāvā, sā ca mukhyatayā ojah-sabda-vācyā. tadāsvādamayā raudrādyās tayā dīptyāsvāda-visesātmikayā (°ātmatayā) kārya-rūpayā lakṣyante rasāntarāt pṛthaktayā, tena kārane karyopacārād raudrādir evaujaḥsabda-vācyaḥ (°locana, p. 80, 11. 7-10).

in the earlier shoods (characterising them in the light of their revised conception of poetry), they could hardly deny the Guna the status of a separate element of poetry specially when this element constituted the most essential point of interest in one of the earlier schools, namely, the Rīti school. Moreover, when one understands the viewpoint of the Rasadhvani theorists and judges poetry on the complete analogy of a human body, as they have done, one fully appreciates the propriety of attributing to the Guna the dignity of a separate poetic element just like Rasa, Alamkāra and Doşa. A supreme disinterested pleasure is admittedly the svarūpa of Rasa but is not this pleasure realised in the form of one or more of these three mental conditions? It is true that a peculiar association with the vibhāva, anubhāva and vyabhicāri bhāva rouses the sthāyin to a stage of relish. But when is it actually relished?—not until it transforms itself into one of these mental conditions although the process of transformation is very rapid and abrupt. Is not then the Guna as essential in the realisation of Rasa as the sthāyibhāva itself? If it is true that the Guna comes into existence on account of the Rasa, it is equally true that the Guna (in the form of the cittarrtti) constitutes a part and parcel in the actual realisation of Rasa. Nay, in the ultimate stage of relish Srngara has no other existence except a supreme delight in the form of the melting of the heart which is the character of the Guna Mādhurya; Raudra has no other existence except in the form of a brilliant expansion of the heart which is the character of the Guna Ojas. Similarly, Prasada in the form of a pervasion of the heart is an essential character of all the Rasas. Thus, although in theory the Guna is awallowed up in the Rasa, in practice it makes the Rasa what it is. This adequately explains the propriety of recognising the Guna as an element of poetry and when

the Guna plays so important a part in the realisation of Rasa, it appears that the Dhvani theorists would have done well to recognise it explicitly as such when they explained the principle involved in the relish of Rasa.'

It has been seen above that the Guna is a property of Rasa but of Rasa itself the realisation is not possible unless one is able to appreciate the situation depicted in the composition, in which some of the accessaries of Rasa find their expression. This proves the utility of śabda and artha in the awakening of Rasa and ultimately of producing the Gunas i. e. the mental conditions spoken of. Abhinavagupta does not take up in detail the question as to what particular letters are specially favourable for particular Gunas. This is discussed first by Mammata (K. P. sūtras 99-100, pp. 484-85). But while commenting on Dhyanikāra's definition of Mādhurya, Abhinava remarks that Mādhurya is that capacity of the word and the sense which awakens the 'sweet' Rasa Śrigāra (madhuraśringāra-rasābhivyaktisamarthatā sabdārthayor mādhuryam iti hi laksanam. °locana on D. K ii; 8, p. 79). If Mādhurya and Śrngāra here are taken to be upalaksanas respectively for Guna and Rasa in general (just like Ojas and Raudra above). this remark would imply that letters and words may be so arranged in a particular composition that when read or heard they are capable of producing one or other

^{11.} It is interesting to note that Bhatṭanāyaka recognised these three mental conditions in the process of the bhoga of Rasa, although he did not use any technical name for them, such as Guna. His views on this point have been quoted in the olocana (p. 68 11. 16-18).....uktan bhatṭanāyakena (p. 67).....bhāvite ca rase tasya bhogah, yo'nubhāva-smarana-pratipattibhyo vilakṣaṇa eva druti-vistāra-vikāsa-nāmā rajas-tamo-vaicitryānanuviddhasattva-maya-nija-cit-svabhāva-nivṛtti-druti-vistānti-lakṣaṇaḥ parabrahmā-svāda-sacivah.

mental condition involved in the realisation of particular Rasa. In the opinion of these theorists the Guna resides primarily in Rasa and it is said to belong to śabda and artha only secondarily i.e. in the sense that these latter possess the capacity for producing it. Abhinava distinctly remarks (op. cit. p. 79, 1, 8) vastuto mādhuryam nāma śrigārāde rasasyaiva gunah. tan madhurābhivyanjakayoh śabdarthayor upacaritam. Thus, when the Dhyanikara and Anandavardhana took śabda and artha to be the substrata of Guna they only recognised their importance in the perception of Rasa in which the Guna, in their opinion, actually resides. We shall see later on (ch. VIIIC) that Jagannatha considers the Guna to be the property as much of the śabda and artha as of the Rasa. He does not admit that one has to take recourse to any secondary usage when one says that the Guna belongs to śabda and artha.

Coming to the details of the mutual relationship between the Rasas and the Gunas, these theorists deal with the question from two different points of view according as (1) a single Guna belongs to different Rasas and (2) different Gunas belong to a single Rasa. Thus, Mādhurya or sweetness is present generally in the Śrngāra Rasa, but it also resides in increasing degrees in the Vipralambha Śrngāra and the Karuna, because the mind undergoes the process of melting in a greater degree in Vipralambha Śrngāra (than in Sambhoga) and in still greater a degree in Karuna. Similarly, Ojas or energy

In this connection Abhinava raises an important objection to the effect that if there is sweetness even in Karuna what is the significance of eva (only) in the previous Kārikā beginning with srngāra eva madhurah etc.? He replies by saying that eva here does not imply exclusion of other Rasas. He apparently

^{12.} śrńgāre vipralambhākhye karuņe ca prakarṣavat | mādhuryam ārdratām yāti yatas tatrādhikam manah || (D. K. ii, 9.)

which involves an expansion of the mind resides generally in the Raudra Rasa, but Abhinavagupta remarks that it may also be present in the Vira and Adbhuta¹³ Rasas. And lastly, Prasada is a Guna which is common to all the Rasas. It has been seen that the perception of Rasa depends on understanding the composition in which some of the accessories of Rasa find their expression, and thus the quality of pervading is the character of this Guna in the sense that in every Rasa the mind must be prepared to grasp at once the situation depicted in the conception. On the other hand, each of the four Rasas, viz., Hāsya, Bhayānaka, Bībhatsa and Śānta, displays in itself a peculiar association of more than one mental condition i.e. each of them contains more than one Guna¹⁴. Thus, Mādhurya and Ojas are equally present in Hāsya (the Comic) for, in the first place, this Rasa is subordinate to Śrigāra and in the second place (it is a fact of common experience that) an expansion of the heart is invariably associated with Hāsa¹⁵. Similarly, in Bhayānaka (the

takes Śmgāra to be an upalakṣaṇa for Rasa in general and understands by the Kārikā-portion quoted above that Guṇas like Mādhurya are really the properties of Rasa. Hence eva does not mean 'only' but it means 'really' or 'primarily'.

- 13. [raudrādaya ilyatra] ādišabdaļ prakāre, tena vīrādbhutayor api grahaṇam (Olocana, p. 80, 11, 1-3)
- 14. evam mādhuryadīptī parasparapratidvandvitayā sthite srngārādiraudrādigate iti pradaršakutayā tat-samāveša-vaicitryam hāsyabhayānaka-bībhatsa-sānteṣu daršitam. Ibid, p. 82, ll, 1-3).
- 15. hāsyasya srīngārāngatayā mādhuryam prakrṣṭam vikāsadharmatayā cauyo'pi prakrṣṭam iti sāmyam dvayoḥ (Ibid, p. 82, Il. 3-4). Abinava evidently means after Bharata (śringārāddhi bhaveddhāsyaḥ—Nāṭyassāstra VI, 44a, K. M. T.) that amorous gestures etc. lie at the basis of the Comic but when it is ultimately realised it is transformed into a brilliant expansion of the heart. So remarks Caṇḍīdāsa "ā/manaḥ parasya vā vāg-veṣa-rūpa-ceṣṭā-vaikrta-vilokanāc cetovikāso hāsaḥ. (odipikā, p. 123. 1.11.)

Frightful) as well as Bibhatsa (the Disgustful) Rasa are present both Ojas and Mādhurva but the former exists in a greater degree than the latter does16. And lastly, in Śanta (the Quietistic) either Ojas or Madhurya predominates according to the variety and individual tendency of its accessaries17. It deserves to be noted here that in the opinion of Mammata (viii, sūtra 91) it is Mādhurya that exists in an excessive degree in the Sānta Rasa. Govinda, however, remarks that this is slightly mixed up with Ojas in view of the fact that a feeling of aversion (which involves an expansion of the heart) lies at the very root of this Rasa (sante tu jugupsadyanvayad ojoleśānuviddham¹. Kāvvapradīpa, vrtti under viii, 4a-b, p. 279). We have thus seen that the three mental conditions druti, dīpti and vyāpti are enough to help the manifestation of all the Rasas and hence they justify only three Gunas corresponding to them and not more.

^{16.} bhayānakasya magna-citta-vṛtti-svabhāvatve'pi vibhā-vasya dīptatavā ojaḥ prakṛṣṭain mādhuryam alpam. bībhatse 'pyevam ('locana, p. 82, ll. 4-5). At the stage of the actual perception of these two Rasas the mind, no doubt, softens down in fear and in disgust respectively, but Ojas is said to predominate in the sense that the ferocious look and the loud roar etc. of the object of fear and the loathesome appearance etc. of the object of disgust produce at the very outset, an expansion of the mind to a considerable degree.

^{17,} sante tu vibhavavaicitryat kadacid ojah prakṛṣṭam kadacin mādhuryam...(Ibid p. 82, 11. 5-6).

^{18.} But a man of experience would probably say, with Mammata, that druti is the only condition which the heart undergoes in the realisation of the Santa Rasa. The aversion to worldly objects involved in this Rasa softens down to a chastening stage of mental calm and it is clearly distinct from the loathing (jugupsā) involved in the Bibhatsa Rasa. So there appears to be little scope for an expansion of the heart in the Santa Rasa.

It is remarkable that the authors of the Dhvanyāloka do not entertain the element of Rīti in poetry thinking it to be unnecessary. The Dhvanikāra remarks that the Ritis were introduced by theorists who only dimly understood the true significance of poetry 19. This implies that when Rasadhvani is accepted as the all important element of poetry (in view of the fact that it serves to afford the poetic charm from within by identifying the mind with the situation depicted in the composition), there is no need of conceiving a separate poetic element as Rīti which, at its best, produces no more than a sensuous delight. Abhinava makes this more clear. He distinctly remarks²⁰ that the Ritis are made to resolve into the Gunas: and since the Gunas are subordinate to Rasa, the Rītis merge their identities in Gunas and ultimately in Rasa. From his commentary it seems that he has no objection to assume the position of Vāmana that Rīti is a special kind of verbal arrangement, and that its speciality consists in its intimate association with the Gunas. But he differs from the Rīti theorists with regard to the nature of the association of the word-structure with the Guna. Thus according to the Riti theorists:

- (1) Guṇas make up the Rīti and as such they are the essential characteristics of it.
- (2) They produce the poetic charm on their own occount. The primacy of Rasa being not recognised, the Rīti theorists' conception of Guṇa and for the matter of that of poetic charm itself was only formal. The word-structure, therefore, is of the highest importance in their theory of poetry.

^{19.} asphuṭasphuritam kāvya-tattvam etad yathoditam |
asaknuvadbhir vyākartum rītayaḥ sampravartitāḥ ||
(D.K iii, 52, p. 231)

^{20.} rītir hi guņesveva paryavasāyitā. yadāha—višeso guņātmā. guņāsca rasaparyavasāyina eva...(°locana, p. 231, l.7)

But we have seen above that in the poetic scheme of the Dhvani theorists,

- (1) Gunas are primarily the characteristics of Rasa and only secondarily of the word-structure.
- (2) The importance of the word-structure is not altogether lost sight of, but is recognised only so far as it helps the production of the Guṇa in the form of the mental condition involved in the perception of the Rasa.

Thus, when the verbal arrangement or the wordstructure does not reside on its own account but merely serves as a means for the apprehension of the inner charms of a poetic composition, the Dhyani theorists do not think it worth while to regard it as a separate poetic element and so they do not assign to it any particular name such as Riti. So long as the verbal arrangement is allowed the recognition that is its due, it is really immaterial whether or not it is endowed with a technical name. Similarly, the conception of Sabda-Vrttis like Upanāgarikā, Parusā and Komalā of earlier writers like Udbhaṭa,21 and the Artha-Vrttis like Kaiśikī, Bhāratī etc. of the dramaturgic writers need not, according to these theorists, be accepted. since just like the Ritis they too merge their identities in Rasa (tadvadeva rasa-paryavasāyitvāt - olocana p. 231, 1.9). It will be seen hereafter that later writers like Mammata, younger Vāgbhaṭa and Viśvanātha, enter in detail into the functions of the word-structure and admit it as a technical poetic factor, (viz. Vrtti) or a separate poetic element, (viz. Rīti).

^{21.} Abhinava's remarks that the Vṛttis (of Udbhaṭa) reside ultimately on account of the Rasa (nāgarikayā hi. anuprāsa-vṛttih sṛṅgārādau visrāmyati. paruṣeti dīpteṣu raudrādiṣu. komaleti hāsyādau.....olocana p. 232. 11. 1-2) helped Mammaṭa to a great extent in appropriating Udbhaṭa's Vṛttis effectively in his own theory of poetry.

It is also remarkable that although the authors of the Dhyanyāloka do not admit Rīti in poetry they admit another poetic factor viz.: Samghatanā, which corresponds in its characteristics partly to the Rītis of Rudraţa. It is classified according to the absence or presence in varying degrees of compound words · Thus, Samghatanā may be asamāsā (uncompounded) madhyama samāsā (having middling compounds) and dīrgha samāsā (having long compounds). The ultimate function of Sanghatana is to help the manifestation of Rasa, but it cannot do this independently. It realises this object through the Gunas and in manifesting Rasa the nature of the Samghatanā should be determined by its appropriateness to the speaker and to the theme of discourse.22 The poet has first to consider-What is the nature of the speaker? What does he mean to say? What is the nature of the situation to be depicted in the composition? Through what Guna is that situation best depicted? In other words, which of the mental conditions spoken of is specially favourable for the enjoyment of the Rasa depicted? Now, if a particular Samghatanā proves to be suitable to that Guna. one is at liberty to use that Sanghatana in connection with the Rasa where the Guna in question prevails. If not, that Saighatanā should be avoided in the said Rasa. Now, since the Samghatana awakens the Rasa through the Guna, a question arises: - What is the relationship between the Samghatana and the Gunas? Two clear courses are possible. The Sanghatana and Gunas may he identical or they may be different. In the second case i.e. when the Samghatana is different from the Gunas they can remain in two ways. (1) The Gunas may reside in the Samghatanā (samghatanāśryā gunāh) or (2)

^{22.} guṇān āśritya tiṣṭhantī mādhuryādīn vyanakti sā | rasāmstanniyame hetur aucityam vaktr-vāvyayoḥ ||

the Sainghatanā may remain subordinate to the Guna (qunāśrayā sainahatanā).23 Now, if the Gunas are identical with Samghatana, or the former belongs to the latter, then we have to admit the position that like Samghatanā, Gunas too have no hard and fast rule for their application, i.e. any Guna may be attributed to any Rasa. 24 But since in real practice we see that particular Gunas are attributed to particular Rasas, whereas any kind of Samghatanā may be present in any Rasa.25 (provided that it be in keeping with the character of the speaker or of the theme), it follows that the Sanighatana cannot be identical with the Gunas (na gunāh samahatanāsvarūpāh...vrtti p. 135) nor can the Gunas belong to the Samghatanā (na ca samghatanāśrayā guṇāh...ibid). What do then the Gunas belong to? It has been already seen that the Gunas belong primarily to the Rasa and secondarily to the word or its sense. Taking advantage of this latter position the opponent might try once more to establish his point by raising an objection to the effect that if it is conceded that the Gunas reside in the word. is it not thereby accepted that they reside in or are even

^{23.} If Samghaṭanā be taken to be the āsraya of the Guṇa, then āsraya would imply ādhārādheyabhāva i.e. the container and the contained (...samghaṭanāsraya-guṇa-pakṣe...guṇān...ādheya-bhūtān āsritya tiṣṭhantī samghaṭanā rasādīn vyanakti Vṛtti on D. K. iii, 6; p. 134). But when Guṇa is the āsraya of the Samghaṭanā, then āsraya would mean "an object on which something else depends or to which something remains subservient". (tadāyattā tanmukhaprekṣiṇī, olocana, p. 134, 1. 10).

^{24.} yadi gunāh samghaṭanā cetyekam tattvam samghaṭanāśrayā vā gunās tadā samghaṭanāyā iva gunānām aniyata-viṣayatvaprasangah. vrtti on D. K. iii, 6: p. 134).

^{25.} guņānām hi......vişayaniyamo vyavasthitah samghaṭanāyāstu sa vighaṭate. tathāhi śṛṅgāre'pi dīrghasamāsā dṛṣyante, raudrādisvasamāsāśceti. (Ibid).

identical with the Samghatana? For, words cannot produce the Guna (and for the matter of that poetic effect itself) unless they are united together in a sentence where however they may remain either compounded or uncompounded. In any case they do come under certain Sanghatanā which term as has been already seen, involves absence or presence (in varying degrees) of compound words. It follows therefore that sainghatita words and consequently Sainghatanā itself can well be the āśraya of the Gunas.26 Anandavardhana replies that it is not true that words must necessarily be sainghatita in order to produce the poetic effect for (i) suggestion of Rasa may take place even through a single word or part of a word where the question of Samghatanā does not arise at all, and (ii) even in the case where suggestion takes place through a sentence, there is no hard and fast rule that a particular Samghatanā should be employed in connection with a particular Rasa. Thus, the Guna may be said to belong (only secondarily) to the word but on no account does it belong to a fixed samahatanā of words and far less can it be identical with the Sanghatana. So it is seen that the spheres of the Guna and the Samghatanā are different (tasmād anye qunā anyā ca sainghaṭanā...vṛtti p. 137) and that it is the Sanghatanā which remains subordinate to the Gunas through which it helps the awakening of any particular Rasa. The Rasa is the main thing to be considered in poetry, whatever hinders the awakening of it must be dispensed with. As for instance, long compounds are generally detrimental when the sentiments of love and pathos are to be depicted for the strain required in

^{26.} nanu yadi sabdāsrayā guņās tat sanghaṭanārūpatvan tadāsrayatvan vā teṣām prāptam eva, na hyasanghaṭitāh sabdā arthaviseṣam pratipūdya rasādyāsritānām guṇānām avācakatvād āsrayā bhavanti (p. 136).

understanding the involved constructions fails to produce a melting of the heart which is a mental condition particularly favourable for awakening the sentiments in question²⁷. And in Rasas which are best realised through an expansion of the heart, madhyama and dīrghasamāsa would prove to be specially favourable. Anandavardhana insists upon the presence of the quality of Prasada in all compositions. If this is absent, then even asamāsā Samghatanā fails to awaken the Śringāra and Karuna Rasas and in case of the presence of this Guna even madhyamasamāsa can awaken them²⁸. Hence the whole issue leads to the only conclusion that compound words can be sanctioned in Madhurya, and even Ojas can go without them provided the propriety is not lost, the awakening of Rasa is not in any way hindered and they are quite in keeping with the character of the speaker and the situation to be depicted.

В.

The postdhvani period of Sanskrit Poetics hardly produced any work of remarkable originality with regard to the general principles of poetry which were formulated once for all by the authors of the Dhvanyāloka. The implicit adherence which the Dhvani theorists received

^{27.} karunavipralambhasrngārayostvasamāsaiva sanghaṭanādīrgha-sanghaṭanā samāsānām aneka-prakāra-sambhāvanayā kadācid rasa-pratītim vyavadadhātīti tasyām nātyantam abhinivesah sobhate.....višeṣatah karunavipralambhasṛngārayoh, tayor hi sukumārataratvāt svalpāyām apy asvacchatāyām sabdārthayoh pratītir mantharībhavati (pp. 139-140).

^{28.} sarvāsu ca s inghatanāsu prasādākhyo guņo vyāpī. sa hi sarva-rasa-sādhāraņah sarva-sainghatanā-sādhāraņah cetyuktam. prasādātikrame hyasamāsā'pi sainghatanā karuna-vipralambhasringārau na vyanakti. tadaparityāge ca madhyama-samāsā'pi prakāsarati (p. 140).

from the later writers in regard to the fundamental principles and theories of poetry could not probably be explained, unless a profound reasonableness underlay their conception of poetry as well as the respective position assigned to the different poetic elements. The recognition of the deeper aspects of poetry in the delineation of the technical elements, Rasa and Dhyani, was no doubt the greatest achievement of the Rasadhyani theorists. But that was not all. The other poetic elements had also to be brought into effective relation with the underlying sentiment of composition, vix., Rasa. This probably they could do in no better a way than taking recourse to the analogy of the human body and soul—their respective decorations (Alamkāra) and virtues

^{1.} Dr. S. K. De has rightly pointed out that the age in which the Post-Dhvani theorists began to flourish, being also the period of early Muhammadan incursions, was marked by a general decadence of all investigations (Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II. p. 297). This is no doubt true to a great extent. But we must remember at the same time that even this period produced writers of no mean ability and some of the commentators of the Kāvyaprakāśa (specially the earlier ones like Rucaka, author of Kāvyaprakāśa-samketa, Śridhara, author of Kāvyaprakāśaviveka and Candidasa, author of Kavyaprakasa-dipika) display such a considerable amount of originality in detail that they may very well be said to have been alamkarikas themselves instead of mere tīkākāras. Hence, the fact, that the general principles laid down by the Dhvani theorists were accepted in the main by Postdhvani writers, does not necessarily prove the lack of a creative genius on the part of these latter but it possibly shows the soundness of the broad theories which their predecessors propounded. Even Jagannatha who vigorously criticised many of his predecessors in matters of detail (P. V. Kane, PCXXXII Introduction to Sahityadarpana) had to admit (in connection with the Akşepālamkāra, p. 425 Rasagangādhara) that the Dhvani theorists settled the main principles to be followed by an ālamkārika (dhvani-kytām ālamkārika-sarani-vyavasthābakatvāt).

(Guṇa)². The analogy proved quite suitable for the purpose and it could carry away most of the later writers only because it served to explain the fundamental principles of a technical subject quite easily and clearly from a most reasonable and common sense point of view. The respective position of the different poetic elements in the Dhvani-theorists' revised scheme of poetry was thus determined once for all and there was hardly any

kāvyasya śabdārthau śarīram, rasādiścātmā, guṇāḥ śauryādivat, doṣāḥ kāṇatvādivat, rītayo'vayava-samsthāna-vīśeṣavat, alamkārāḥ kaṭakakuṇḍalādivat (vṛtti on i, 2. pp. 12-13)
Kavikarṇapura, made a distinction between the 'life' (asu-prāṇa) and 'soul' (atma) of a man and tried to be more accurate when he explained the analogy thus:—

sarīram sabdārthau dhvanir asava ātmā kila rasaḥ
guṇā mādhuryādyā upamitimukho'lamkṛtigaṇaḥ |
susamsthānam rītiḥ sa kila paramaḥ kāvya-puruṣaḥ
yadasmin doṣaḥ syāc chravaṇakaṭutādiḥ sa na paraḥ |
(Alamkāra-kaustubha, p. 5, Kar. 1).

^{2.} The authors of the Dhvanyāloka do not take up a detailed treatment of the concept of Dosa but merely hint at the nitva and anitva varieties of this element (see D.K. quoted above in viii A, fn. 2) according as it bars or helps the awakening of Rasa. And it has been seen above that the concept of Rīti has not been admitted in their poetic scheme. So, when they left these two elements out of their consideration and utilised the analogy of the human body only in connection with the elements, Guna and Alamkara it was quite natural that the analogy could not be full in their treatment. Yet, the fact remains that they were the first to introduce this analogy effectively in the new theory of poetry and it was left to their successors to make it complete by carrying the scheme further. What they utilised in respect of Guna and Alamkara, was employed by their successors to other poetic elements as well. Viśvanātha, who, following Candidasa introduced the concept of Riti in his poetic scheme, explains the analogy fully thus, following some earlier authority:-

scope left for a mutual controversy amongst the later writers in respect of matters of general theory³. Naturally, therefore, the Postdhvani writers took upon themselves the task of explaining, expanding or restricting the already established rules and theories. They repeated more or less the same idea—each in his own way and if they at all chose to differ from their immediate predecessors, they did it only in point of minor details.

MAMMATA AND HIS FOLLOWERS.

Foremost amongst the later writers stands Mammaṭa whose Kāvyaprakāśa is considered to be the standard work which systematised the teachings of the Dhvani School. It is remarkable that although he was an avowed follower of the Dhvani theorists and as a matter of fact accepted the essentiality of Rasa in poetry, his definition of Kāvya (tad adoṣau śabdārthau saguṇāv analaṅkṛtī punaḥ kvāpi)* does not make any explicit mention of

^{3.} Many of the later writers thought it to be unprofitable stick to the beaten tracks and consequently they took up works of new type such as the treatment of some fixed Rasas in all their varieties and details (Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II. pp. 333-43) or of special topics like Kavišikṣā (op. cit. pp. 356-75 and the article entitled "The Making Of The Sanskrit Poet" by Dr. F. W. Thomas in the Bhandarkar Commemoration Volume pp. 375-86). The only subject which occupied an important position in the treatment of the later orthodox theorists was the discussion of poetic figures which were not explicitly treated but incidentally touched by the authors of the Dhvanyāloka. This was a field where powerful writers of the later period got an opportunity of displaying a considerable amount of originality in their attempt to supplement the treatment of earlier authorities,

^{4.} Following the lead of Rucaka, the earliest known commentator on the K. P. Professor S. P. Bhattacharyya has seen in the Kārikā-portion tad adoşau etc. a summary of the contents of Mammata's work and not a definition as is

the elements of Rasa and Dhyani. He starts with śabda and artha following the usual method of the older schools. Rasa comes out only incidentally as a particular type (asamlaksya-krama) of one (vyangya) of the three kinds of artha. The śabda and the artha which constitute Kāvya must be free from Dosa (adosau) and endowed with Guna (sagunau). They may or may not possess Alamkāra (analamkrtī punah kvāpi). Thus, the definition indicates the unmistakable influence which the older Rīti school exerted on Mammata in considering the Gunas to be essential (nitya) and Alamkāras^{4a} to be non-essential (anitya) elements of poetry. This would apparently imply that in Mammata's opinion Gunas and Dosas can remain independently in Kārya; they need not, as it were, be subservient to Rasa. But later on when he defines these elements in terms of the part they

the generally accepted view (Kāvyaprakāśa-samketa in the Calcutta Oriental Journal, Vol. II pp. 1-75. He also holds that the very first Kārikā of Mammaţa's work.

niyati-kṛta-niyama-rahitām hlādaikamayīm ananya-paratantrām | nava-rasa rucirām nirmitim ādadhatī bhāratī kaver jayati ||

contains his conception about the essence of poetry and as such it may be treated as his definition there-of. This view is, no doubt, interesting as Mammata is thereby understood to have admitted explicitly the fundamental importance of Rasa in his conception of poetry in accordance with the tradition obtaining in the school to which he belongs. We shall not, at this stage, make any difference between 'the definition of peotry' and a summary of the contents there-of.

(4a) It may, at the same time, be held that the Alamkāra school, which had its most redoubtable champion in Udbhaṭa, was no less honoured for the hold of Udbhaṭa on Mammaṭa, as Kashmirian tradition would lead us to believe, was quite a potent factor in the making up of his scheme and concept of poetry. The phrase analankrtī punah kvāpi may reasonably indicate that Alamkāras were the rule rather than an exception.

play in awakening Rasa, he makes himself liable to a glaring inconsistency. This inconsistency, as has been already shown by Dr. S. K. De (Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II, pp. 275-82), may be explained by the fact that in spite of accepting the general scheme and theory of the Dhvani School, Mammata could not shake off the influence of the earlier Schools and it proved to be the hopeless result of an attempt to "find a comprehensive formula to cover the old ideas as well as the new in a standard text book." 4b

The first six chapters of Mammata's work are devoted broadly to the definition and sub-divisions of Kāvya and the various functions of śabda and artha. Keeping close to the order in which the elements are mentioned in his definition, he then proceeds to discuss the Doṣas in chapter VII and the Guṇas in chapter VIII. The last two chapters are devoted to the treatment of Alainkāras—IX to those of śabda (including three Vṛttis which are taken to be equivalent to the three Ritis of Vāmana) and X to those of artha. But before entering into a detailed discussion of the individual Guṇas and Alainkāras, Mammaṭa draws a clear-cut distinction between the general character of the two elements in the first two āKrikās of ch. VIII, which run thus:

- (1) ye rasasyāngino dharmāḥ śauryādaya ivātmanaḥ t utkarṣa-hetavas te syur acala-sthitayo guṇāḥ #
- (2) upakurvanti tam santam ye'ngadvāreņa jātucit! hārādivad alamkārās te 'nuprāsopamādayah!

⁽⁴b) This point has been repeatedly pressed in the commentary of Candidasa first in connection with the definition of poetry and then in connection with the Doşas.

^{5.} P. V. Kane has given an analysis of the different chapters of the K. P. in his Introduction to the Sāhityadarpaṇa (pp. XCIX and C).

Unlike the Dhyanikāra, he does not rest satisfied with only ascertaining where the elements spoken of reside but he goes further and explains, with some amount of exactitude, the nature of the association between the element and its substratum. Thus, his definition, quoted above, would imply that Gunas not only belong to Rasa but are inseparable characteristics (acala-sthitayo $dharm\bar{a}h$) of it and as such they invariably help its realisation (utharsa-hetavah). And these are exactly the points that distinguish them from the Alamkaras which can, on no account, be said to reside in Rasa but may only occasionally embellish it. Even this they can do only indirectly through \$abda and artha. which they chiefly adorn. Govinda has set forth in very clear terms the distinctive characteristics of the two elements thus: evain ca rasasyotkarsa-hetutve sati (1) rasa-dharmatvain tathātve sati (2) rasāvyabhicāristhititvam⁶, (3) ayogavyavacchedena rasopakārakatvain ceti laksanatrayain gunārāin drastavyam (Kāvyapradīpa, vrtti, under VIII, 1. p. 274). As for the Alamkāras he says: - rasopakārakatre sati (1) tadavrttitvain, tathātre sati (2) rasavyabhicāritvam. (3) aniyamena rasopakārakatvain ceti sāmānya-laksanatrayam alamkārānām (op. cit. vrtti under VIII, 2, p. 275).

^{6.} We should mark the propriety of the expression acala-sthitayih in Mammata's definition of Guṇa against that of jātucit upakurvanti in his definition of Alamkāra. Govinda brings out two prominent characteristics of Guṇa from the single epithet acala-sthitayah. He explains it as apṛthaksthitayah or avyabhicāristhitayah, avyabhicāra which means non-separation or constancy is, in his opinion, to be judged not only in respect of (the existence of Guṇa in) Rasa but also of the capacity of Guṇa for embellishing Rasa. Thus he remarks:—avyabhicārasca rasena tadupakārena vā. rasam vinā ye nāvatisthante, avatisthamānās cāvasyam rasam upakurvantītyarthah. (vṛtti under VIII, 1. p. 274). The Guṇas cannot exist without Rasa and existing in it they invariably help its awakening.

In his Vrtti on Kārikā 87 (p. 462) Mammata clearly explains the poetic Guna on the analogy of human Guna and sets forth the views of Abhinavagupta regarding the relationship between Guna and the varna (letters). by overthrowing the teachings of the Rīti School on this point. His main contention is that just as qualities like bravery etc. belong to the human soul and not to the body, so the poetic excellences like sweetness etc. are properties really belonging to Rasa, not to the letters.7 In this connection he observes that those who hold Guna to belong exclusively to the varna have no insight into the deeper charms of Rasa (rasa-paryanta-vi śrāntapratītivandhyāh-l. 5, p. 464). The common unable to look into the true nature of things (aviśrāntapratitavah-1. 3, p. 464) are often carried away by the mere size of a man and call him brave or not brave according as his body is bulky or small, irrespective of the fact whether or not he really possesses the virtue of bravery at heart. To this assumption they are led by their unguarded observation for the quality of bravery is sometimes found to be co-existent with an impressive appearance.8 But we must remember that this is not always the case for even a man having a thin body may be brave at heart. And even when it is so expressions like 'the body itself is brave' (ākāra evāsya śūrah) cannot be justified unless one takes recourse to a secondary usage. The right use would probably be 'the appearance is suggestive of bravery' (ākāraḥ śauryavynjakaḥ) for

^{7.} ālmana eva hi yathā sauryādayo nākārasya, tathā rasasyaiva mādhuryādayo guņā na varņānām (l. i, p. 463).

^{8.} kvacit tu szuryādi-samucitasyākara-mahattvāder daršanād ākāra evāsya 'sūrzh, ityāder vyavahārād, anyatrāšūre'pi vitatākņtitva-mātreņa 'sūra' iti, kvāpi sūre'pi mūrti-lāghava-mātreņa "asūra' iti avisrānta-pratītayo...vyavahāranti, (ll. 1-3. p. 464).

this much we can reasonably say of a man from hi external features.

Similar is the case with letters in relation to the poetic Guna. Those theorists, who cannot dive so fa as to comprehend the delectability of Rasa, speak of th letters themselves as being sweet or not sweet (wherea in reality qualities like sweetness etc. belong to Rasa the soul of poetry). The only consideration, that weigh with them, is whether the letters are soft-sounding o high-sounding and this they take to be the sole criterio for judging the presence of Mādhurya or Ojas in a parti cular composition. But this criterion is defective, sinc it is apt to confuse the real issue and if it is accepted there is just the risk of calling such Rasas and their accessories as are not really sweet as sweet simply b reason of the softness of the letters that express then At the same time, it is also possible that really swee passions and their accessories will be treated as 'no sweet' if they are expressed in letters that are not soft sounding.9 Of course it appears from two of Mammata' subsequent $s\bar{u}tras$ (viz. 99 and 100) that sweetnes (Mādhurya) is generally co-existent with soft-soundin letters and energy (Ojas) with high-sounding ones, but w should remember that that is not the last word spoken by him on this point. For, he himself has stated immediate ly afterwards (in sūtra 102) that letters (and for th matter of that) compounds and diction are sometime altered in order to suit the nature of (i) the speaker (ii) the subject matter and (iii) the form of composition This shows, therefore, that when the letters are properly

^{9.} madhurādi-vyanjaka-sukumārādi-varņānām madhurādi vyavahāra-pravṛtter amadhurādi-rasāngānām varņānām sauku māryādi-mātreņa mādhuryādi, madhurādirasopakataņānām tesār asaukumāryāder amādhuryādi rasa-paryanta-visrānta pratītivan dhyā vyavaharanti (p. 464. ll. 3-5).

selected they can, like the appearance of a man, only suggest a particular Guṇa but on no account can the Guṇa subsist in the letters entirely. Later on (in sūtra 95) Mammaṭa has told us that the Guṇas may be spoken of as subsisting in words and their meanings only indirectly i. e. by taking recourse to a figurative use in the same manner as human virtues have been attributed to the body. It may be noted here that in all that has been said above Mammaṭa does not propound any strikingly novel theory himself. He simply explains by means of a suitable analogy the main principles set forth by Ānandavardhana and specially Abhinavagupta.

Mammata next goes on to criticise two earlier views on the respective position of Guna and Alamkara. first of these views is that there is absolutely no difference between the Guna and the Alamkara. Both these elements are inherent qualities of Kāvya. Those who like to draw a distinction between them are led by merely a blind tradition. Virtues like bravery may well be said to subsist in a man by inherence samavāya-vrttyā and ornaments like necklace on his body by conjunction (samuogavrttyā). But what is true in the case of laukika auna and alamkāra is not so in the case of Kāvyaguna and Kāvyālamkāra, both of which subsist by inherence alone 10. It is not directly known what particular theorist set forth the above views but, Mānikyacandra (°sanketa. p. 187) and some other commentators of Kāvvaprakāśa hold that this was the argument advanced by Bhattodbhata¹¹ in his Bhāmahavivarana. Mammata himself, how-

^{10.} samavāya-vṛttyā sauryādayah samyogavṛttyā tu hārādaya ityastu guṇālamkārāṇām bhedah. ojuh-prabhṛtīnām anuprāsopamāaīnām cobhayeṣām api samavāyavṛttyā sthirtir iti gaḍḍalikā pravāheṇaivaiṣām bheda ityabhidhānam asat. (K. P. p 470. ll. 1-3).

^{11.} We have no direct source for ascertaining the views of Udbhata regarding the exact nature of the Gunas and Alamkāras.

ever, fully accepts the analogy of laukika guṇa ar alamkāra, as has been seen above.

The other view that Mammata disproves is the or held by Vāmana who opines that the Gunas are sufficie to produce poetic beauty whereas the Alamkāras height the beauty thus produced (pp. 89-91, ch. VI.). Mamma argues¹, that if all the Gunas together be taken

His main treatise, Bhāmaha-vivarana (referred to in laghuvi on Kāvyālamkāra-sāra-samgraha, Ed. Banhatti. p. 14) is now lo In his Kāvyālamkāra-sāra-samgraha which now exists, he has to us nothing regarding his views on Guna. But Indurāja, wh commenting on Udbhata's definition of the poetic figt Kāvyalinga (vi, 7), brings in a curious discussion about Gui and Rasas. N. D. Banhatti (notes on Kāvvālamkāra-sā samgraha, pp. 154-50) has already shown the unprofitable charac of this discussion inasmuch as it is hopeless attempt at reconcil. the views of Vāmana with those of the Rasa-dhvani theori Udbhata's views can be gleaned only from second-hand source e.g. Alamkārasarvasva (p. 7) and Pratāparudra Yosobhūs: with its commentary Ratnapana (p. 334, ed Trivedi). These sh that Udbhata maintained very slight distinction between Gi and Alamkara. The former in his opinion, belongs to same hate only, whereas the latter belongs to sabda and artha (udbhatādil tu gunālamkārānām prāyasah sāmyam eva sūcitam, bisaya-mātri bhedapratipadanat. samghtana-dharmatvena sabdartha-dharmatv cesteh. Alamkārasarvasva, loc cit.). The view quoted by Mamma however, makes absolutely no difference between the two elemen Banhatti is probably right when he says that these views agree the main point, namely that, there is no essential difference between the Guna and the Alamkara in Udbhata's theory of Poetry.

12. yad apyuktam kavya-sobhayah kartaro dharma gunas t atisaya-hetavas tvalamkara iti tadapi na yuktam. yatah k samastair gunaih kavya-vyavahara uta katipayaih, yadi samast tat katham asamasta-guna gaudi pancali ca ritih kavyasyati atha katipayaih tatah

adrāv atra prajjvalatyagnir uccaiḥ prājyaḥ prodyannullasatyeṣa dhūmaḥ ¦ ityādāvojaḥ-prabhṛtiṣu guṇeṣu satsu kāvya-vyavahāra-prāptiḥ (pp. 471account for poetry, as such, then the Gaudī and Pāñeālī. Rītis (as accepted by Vāmana) cannot be regarded as the essence of poetry because they are not marked by all the Guṇas. On the other hand, if the presence of only one or two Guṇas can produce the poetic charm, then a purely unpoetical passage e.g. one containing gādhabandhatva has to be regarded as poetry.

Following the authors of the Dhvanyāloka, Mammaṭa enumerates and defines only three Guṇas, namely, Mādhurya, Ojas and Prasāda.

- (1) Mādhurya gladdens the heart by way of producing a melting thereof. It resides ordinarily in Śṛṅgāra (sambhoga), but it is also present in increasing degrees in Karuṇa, Vipralambha śṛṅgāra and Sānta Rasas¹³.
- (2) Ojas which leads to a glow in the form of an expansion of the heart, resides generally in the Vira Rasa and it is felt in increasing degrees in Bibhatsa and Raudra Rasas¹⁺.
 - (3) And lastly, Prasāda is that quality which pervades the mind like fire among dry fuel or like a clear stream of water. It is present everywhere *i.e.* in all Rasas and in all compositions¹⁵. The
 - 13. āhlādakatvam mādhuryam spingāre druti-kāraņam | karuņe vipralambhe tacchānte cātisayānvitam || (sūtras 90-91, pp. 474-75).
 - 14. dīptyātma-vistrter hetur ojo vīra-rasa-sthiti | bībhatsa-raudra-rasayos tasyādhikyam krameņa tu || (sūtras 92-93, pp. 475-76).
- 15, suskendhanāgnivat svaccha-jala-vat sahasaiva yah l vyāpnoty anyat prasādo'sau sarvatra vihita-sthitih | (sūtra 95, p. 477).

The analogy of clear water and of fire among dry fuel was brought in first by Abhinava (jhag iti suska-kāsthāgni-drstāntenā-

crucial character of this Guṇa is its capacity for bringing out clearly the sense of a passage as soon as it is read-out 1 6.

Mammata studies critically the ten sabdagunas of Vāmana¹⁷ and limits them down to the three mentioned above. He holds that some of the ten Gunas can very well be included in these three (kecid antarbhvantyesu); some are considered to be merely absence of demerits (dosa-tuāaāt pare śritāh) while others are positive demerits in certain cases (anye bhajanti dosatvain kutracit, sūtra 96. p. 478). Thus, Vāmana's (1) Ślesa (coalescence of words) (2) Samādhi (adjustment of structural ascent and descent) (3) Udāratā (liveliness of the composition) and (4) Prasāda (looseness of structure mixed up with certain cohesiveness)-all come under the single quality Ojas in the new theory. (5) Mādhurva, which consists in distinctness of words can, in a sense, be included under the same Guna in the new theory for it will be seen later on that a diction, if it is to be favourable to the quality of Mādhurva, must either be free from compound words (avrttih) or contain compounds of only medium length $(madhyavrttir v\bar{a})$ (6) Arthavvakti or explicitness of sense comes under 'Lucidity'. (7) Samatā, which consists in

kaluşodaka-drşţāntena ca tad akāluşyam prasannatvam nāma sarvarasānām guṇah......⁰locana, p. 82, 11. 7-8) Bharata, of course, mentioned in a different context (VII, 7, K. M. T.) the first analogy met with in Mammaţa's text.

^{16. \$}ruti-mātreņa \$abdāt tu yenārtha-pratyayo bhavet | sādhāraņah samagrāņām sa prasādo guņo matah || (sūtra 101, p. 468).

^{17.} It ought to be noted that Mammata never mentions Vāmana by name in connection with his treatment of the Guṇas but the definitions of the ten Guṇas (each of sabda and artha) scrutinised by him leave no room for doubt that he is referring to the treatment of Vāmana.

a uniformity of diction, is sometimes a positive defect. And lastly (8) Saukumārya and (9) Kānti which consist in freedom from harshness and richness of words (i.e. avoidance of the commonplace) respectively are, really speaking, the negations of the technical defects, Kaṣṭatva and Grāmyatva (vṛtti on sūtra 96, p. 479). (10) Vāmana's Ojas is of course included under Mammaṭa's Guṇa of the same name.

Mammata then explains away the so-called arthaqunas of Vāmana. In his opinion Vāmana's artha-guna (1) Ojas, defined as boldness in the expression of ideas, is nothing but a strikingness of utterance and as such it is not a Guna at all. Kāvya can well exist without such strikingness, uktivaicitrya itself being the opposite of the technical Dosa, Anavīkṛtatva, Vāmana's (2) Mādhurya need not be enumerated as a positive excellence. His (3) Prasāda, which involves mention of what is absolutely necessary, is only the opposite of Adhika-padatva Doşa. Similarly, his (4) Saukumārya and (5) Udāratā are merely the negations of Amangalāslila and Grāmyatva Dosas respectively. Commingling of ideas (ghatanā) is only a strikingness and so (6) Vāmana's Ślesa stands outside the range of excellences (7) Prakramābheda is merely a dosābhāva, hence his Samatā is not a Guna. (8) Samādhi. which consists in comprehending the meaning of a poem (as being original or borrowed), cannot be regarded as a special Guna. A composition cannot certainly be regarded as poetry at all unless the reader understands the meaning of it and ascertains whether it is original or borrowed. Then again, Vāmana's (9) Arthavyakti, characterised as vastu-svabhāva-sphutatva, comes under Mammata's poetic figure Svabhāvokti and his (1) Kānti, defined as dīptarasatva, is included under Rasadhyani either predominant or subordinate (vrtti on sūtra 96, pp. 481-33). Thus it is shown that Gunas that pertain to the sense in the opinion

of Vāmana, ought not to be mentioned separately (tena nārthagunā vācyāh...sūtra 97, p. 483).

Each of the three Gunas accepted in the new theory is produced (or suggested) by a particular arrangement of letters (varna), compounds (samāsa) and style of composition (racanā). Thus, (i) all sparša letters or (mutes from k to m) excepting the letters of the ta-rarga combined with the last letter of their respective varga, (ii) the consonants r and n with short vowels, (iii) absence of compounds or presence of short compounds and (iv) soft diction...these are specially favourable for the quality of Mādhurva.18 Similarly (i) compound consonants formed by the combination of the first and third letters of a varga with the letters immediately following them (i.e. with the second and fourth letters respectively) (ii) as also those formed by any sort of combination with r (iii) combination of similar letters (iv) all the letters of the ta-varga excepting n (which is favourable for Mādhurya), (v) palatal and cerebral sibilants (vi) long compounds and (vii) bombastic style...these are suggestive of the quality Ojas.19 No particular letters or compounds have been fixed for the Guna, Prasada. Any letter or compound may be employed herein provided that perspicuity, which is the sine qua non of this Guna. is not lost. Those that are detrimental to it ought to be rigorously abandoned.

It will be interesting to note that, while Mammata does not admit Rīti as a separate element of poetry, although he does not altogether leave out of consideration the question

^{18.} mūrdhni vargāntyagāh sparšā aṭavargā raṇau laghū | avṛttir madhya-vṛttir vā mādhurye ghaṭanā tathā || (sūtra 99, p. 484).

^{19.} yoga ādya-trtīyābhyām antyayo, reņa tulyayoḥ ṭādiḥ, śaṣau, vṛtti-dairghyam, gumpha uddhata ojasi || (sūtra 100, p. 485, see also the vṛtti)

of structure or diction. This has been covered by his conception of Vrtti, which comes in course of his treatment of the śabdālamkāra Anuprāsa in ch. IX. Vrtti has been defined as that function of some fixed letters which feemes within the province of i.e.) remains subordinate to Rasa (niyata-varna-gato rasa-visayo vyāpārah... vrtti on sūtra 105, p. 495). Mammata enumerates and defines three different Vrttis, namely, (1) Upanāgarikā. (2) Parusā and (3) Komalā or Grāmyā and remarks that these three Vrttis have been called Vaidarbhī, Gaudī and Pāñcālī Rītis respectively by some earlier theorists like Vāmana.20 The diction which is characterised by letters suggestive of Mādhurya is called Upanāgarikā (mādhurya-vyañjakair varnair upanāgarikocyate...sūtra 108, p. 497); that which is characterised by letters suggestive of Ojas is known as Parusā (ojah-prakāśakais tais tu parusā...sūtra 109, loc. cit) and that characterised by letters other than those mentioned above is Komalā or Grāmyā (komalā paraih...sūtra 110 10c. cit.). Mammata has no doubt been considerably influenced by Udbhata in respect of his nomenclature and definition of individual Vrttis but they view this poetic factor from different angles. Udbhata looks upon the Vrtti as a definite arrangement of letters, 21 which may impart

^{20.} keşāncid etā vaidarbhī-pramukhā rītayo matāḥ
(sūtra III, p. 498),
etās tisro vṛttayaḥ vāmanādīnām mate vaidarbhīgaudī-pāncāhākhyā rītayo matāḥ.
(vrtti on the above).

^{21.} śaṣābhyām repha-samyogaiṣ ṭa-vargeṇa cu yojitā |
paruṣā nāma vṛttiḥ syāt hla-hva-hyādyaiśca samyutā ||
svarūpa-samyoga-yutām mūrdhni vargāntya-yogibhiḥ |
sparśair yutām ca manyante upanāgarikām budhāḥ ||
śaṣair varṇair yathā-yogam kathitam komalākhyayā |
grāmyām vṛttim praśamsanli kāvyeṣvādṛta-budhhayaḥ ||
(Kāvyālamkāra-sāra-samgraha i, 4-6).

poetic charm on its own account and which is not theoretically related to any other poetic element. 212 Mammata's Vrtti, on the other hand, is a definite arrangement of letters, no doubt, but it cannot produce the poetic charm on its own account because it has explicitly been said to be a rasa-visaya vyāpāra. It is true that Mammata's Vrttis have not been definitely mentioned to be connected directly with the Rasa. They are determined primarily by their capacity for suggesting particular Gunas. But since the Gunas reside in Rasa, the Vrttis may be taken to be subservient to Rasa through indirect association or paramparāsambandha. This would remind us of Dhyanikāra's Samghatanā, which has been characterised as manifesting Rasa through the Gunas (VIII A. pp. 214-6 above). But in spite of their apparently similar nature, we should not identify Dhyanikāra's Samghatanā with Mammata's Vrttis. We must note that Anandavardhana does not fix a particular Samghatanā for a particular Guna, while Mammata defines each of his Vrttis in terms of a particular Guna. Ānandavardhana's Samehatanā is determined by the absence or presence of compound words whereas in Mammata's treatment of Vrtti the question of compound words is not at all touched upon but the presence of particular letters suggesting particular Gunas is discussed. We must also note that the sphere of Mammata's ghatanā or gumpha (sūtras 99-100) is wider than that of Dhyanikāra's Samghatanā.

²¹a. This is what we can gather from the Kāvyālamkārasārasamgraha. Whether Udbhaṭa, who is also known to have commented on the Nāṭyasāstra (where the Nāṭyavṛttis e.g. kaiśikī, Sāttvatī are connected as a matter of course with Rasa), was influenced in nomenclature as well as in conception to a certain extent by Bharata's view is a question that can not be answered in the absence of the commentary referred to.

The respective position of the concepts of Rīti and Guṇa came to be finally settled by the authors of the Dhvanyāloka on the basis of the part they play towards helping the realisation of the underlying soul of poetic sentiment and not as an external element belonging to śabda and artha. Mammaṭa, in his attempt to establish a clear-cut scheme of poetics, accepted the views and principles of the Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana, but he thought it necessary to examine critically and refute the Rīti-Guṇa theory of the early writers before establishing his own. Later post-dhvani writers generally elaborated the teachings of the new school, taking Mammaṭa as a type. Some of them curiously adhered to the teachings of the predhvani schools.²²

^{22.} The older Vagbhata follows Rudrata in classifying Ritis in terms of compound words (Vāgbhaṭālamkāra, lV, 150-51). Properly speaking, there are two Ritis, viz., (1) Vaidarbhi, when the letters are not compounded and (2) Gaudi, when they are compounded. The types Pancali and Lativa are not recognised by commentators as being set forth by Vagbhata (fn on p. 61. op. cit.) although these two Ritis are actually found in the text (IV.150) defined exactly after Rudrata. Gunas and Rasas have absolutely no part to play in the older 'Vāgbhaṭa's Rītis. Ten Guṇas are enumerated. They generally correspond in nature to the śabdagunas of Vāmana excepting (1) Mādhurya which is defined as sarasārtha-badatva (iii, 15a) and (2) Samādhi (iii 11) which bears the character of Dandin's Guna of the same name. Vidvanatha defines Rīti as guņāslista-padasamghatanā (Pratāparudra®, Kāvyaprakarana. p, 63) which is akin to the old definition given by Vāmana. He defines Gaudīvā Rīti in relation to Gunas (ojah-kānti-gunopetā ... op. cit. p. 65). But curiously enough his Vaidarbhī is not defined in terms of the Gunas. This is marked by an absence of (1) harsh structure (bandha-pārusya), (2) difficult words (sabda-kāthinya) and (3) long compounds (atidīrgha-samāsa...op. cit. p. 64). His Pāncālī possess the characteristics of both Vaidarbhi and Gaudi (ubhavātmikā ...op. cit. p. 66). We have already seen (VII B. pp. 158-9 above) that Vidyanatha follows the scheme of Bhoja's twenty four Gunas.

Hemcandra follows Mammata closely in (i) his conception and execution of the Gunas. (ii) his nonacceptance of Rīti as a separate poetic elements and (iii) his enumeration and characterisation of the Vrttis. He defines the three Gunas after Mammata...(1) Madhurva. as the cause of a melting of the heart (druti-hetuh... Kāvyānuśāsana p. 201). (2) Oias, as the cause of its expansion (dipti-hetuh...op. cit. p. 202) and (3) Prasada as the cause of pervasion (vikāśa-hetuh...op, cit. p. 203): but he differs from the latter in holding that a greater degree of Mādhurva exists in the different Rasas in the order Sambhoga, Śānta, Karuṇa and Vipralambha (p. 201). The letters and compounds that suggest these Gunas are in his opinion, the same as those discussed by Mammata.

Vidvādhara enumerates and defines three Rītis after Vāmana (Ekāvalī V. 9-12, pp. 149-50) remarking that Āvantikā and other Rītis are not separately mentioned in view of the fact that they constitute special cases only by the admixture (sāmkarya) of the three orthodox Ritis (op. cit. V, 13, p. 150). He accepts and defines three Gunas and explains away the daśa-guna theory of the Riti school after the manner of Mammata (V. 7-8. p. 48). But although Vidyādhara accepts only three Gunas and does not admit Kānti as a separate Guṇa, it is strange that he defines Pañcali and Gaudi Ritis in terms of Kanti (along with Oias in V. 11-12, pp. 149-50)

The younger Vāgbhata adheres to the dasa-quna theory of the Rīti school but he defines Mādhurya, Ojas and Prasada in the light of the definitions given in the Dhyani school²⁸ and classifies his Rītis on the basis

^{23. (}i) yatranandam amandam mano dravati, tan madhuryam. Srngara-Santa-karuneşu kramenadhikyam. (Kāvyānuśāsana ch. II, p. 30).

thereof. His Samādhi (p. 30) is the same as that of Daṇḍin and each of the remaining six of his Guṇas (pp. 29-30) partakes of the nature of the corresponding śabda-guṇa of Vāmana. When he accepted in toto the character of all the three Guṇas of the Dhvani theorists, it is really strange that he ignored the latter's criticism of the earlier daśa-guṇa theory, but kept the number intact instead. This proves that these minor writers were never great theorists and so it is idle to expect always a systematic treatment at their hands.

The younger Vāgbhaṭa has assigned a place to the Rītis in his system—Rītis conceived in relation to Guṇas as well as special letters, structures and compounds. The Rītis are enumerated as three—Vaidarbhī, Gauḍīyā and Pāñcālī which possess respectively the Guṇas, Mādhurya, Ojas and Prasāda and each of which is composed of a special structure.²⁴ It is interesting to note in this connection that the younger Vāgbhaṭa was not the first writer in the Postdhvani period to bring in the idea of Rīti in his scheme of poetry. We have already seen that Mammaṭa was not much for

⁽ii) dīptihetur ojaḥ. vīra-bībhatsa-raudreṣu krameṇa viseṣato ramyam. (ibid).

⁽iii) jhagity artharpanena ceto-vikāśa-janakah sarvarasa-racanātmakah prasādah. (p. 31).

^{24. (}i) mādhurya-gunopayuktā vaidarbhī rītiḥ. asyām ca prāyena (1) komalo bandhaḥ (2) asamāsaḥ (3) ţa-vargurahitā nijapañcamākrāntā vargāḥ (4) ranau hrasvāntaritau ca prayojyau. (p. 31).

 ⁽ii) ojo-gunayuktā gaudīyā rītih. asyām ca (1) ban-dhauddhatyam (2) samāsa-dairghyam (3) samyuktavarnatvam (4) prathama-trtiyākrāntu dvitīya-caturthau yuktau (5) rephas ca kāryah. (Ibid).

⁽iii) prasāda-guņa-yuktā pāncālī. atra suślisto bandhah prasiddhāni ca padāni. (Ibid),

admitting Rīti as a separate poetic element (p. 231 above). It was his commentator, Caṇḍīdāsa, who was perhaps the first among the followers of the Dhvani theory to devote some attention towards a separate treatment of this element. Although he remarks that Rītis are nothing more than particular arrangement of letters which need not have any technical name because they have no peculiar characteristics²⁵, he himself offers a separate definition of each of the three Rītis (referred to by Mammaṭa) in terms of a particular Guṇa and a special structure of composition²⁶.

Viśvanātha follows, in the main, the teachings of Mammaṭa (and sometimes the latter's commentator Caṇḍādāsa, whom he introduces to us as the younger brother of his grand-father)²⁷. In the first chapter

(K. l'. cipika, fol. 120a, India Office ms.)

Viśvanātha's indebtedness to Caṇḍidāsa is clearly seen in several places of the latter's odīpikā. The most important instance is Viśvanātha's definition of poetry as well as the manner of his criticism of Mammaṭa's definition. Viśvanātha's definition vākyam rasātmakam kāvyam (kar. 3. p. 19) is only another form of Caṇḍidāsa's remark.....āsvādajīvātuḥ pada-sandarbhaḥ kāvyam (odīpikā, ed. S. P. Bhattacharyya. p. 13). Besides, the following lines of Caṇḍidāsa will show to what extent Viśvanātha had drawn upon him when he established his definition of poetry by overthrowing the one given by Mammaṭa. Says caṇḍidāsa "..........doṣa-tāratamyāccāsvādabhāva-tāratamyam, na tu kāvyatva-hāniḥ, teṣām sarvatra vyāpakatvāt. guṇāścāsvāda-śarīrānturgatā eva, na tu śabdārtha-racanā-dharmā iti. ye tvadosāv iti lakṣaṇāmśam

^{25.} etā eveti...tāsānca šabdavinyāsāprthagrūpatvāt. vinyāsamātre ca nātišayini vilakṣaṇanāmāyogāt.

^{26.} prasāda-vyanjaka-komala-prāya-vanņamayī vaidarbhī.
ojovyanjaka-paruṣaprāya-varņamayī gaudī. mādhuryavyanjaka-masṛṇa-prāya-varṇamayī pāncālī. (Ibid)

^{27.} asmat-pitāmahānuja-kavipaņditamukhya-śrīcaņdīdāsapādānām.....S. D. P. 506. vṛtti on Kar 601.

of his work he has explained poetry (strictly the different poetic elements, viz., Rasa, Guna, Dosa, Rīti and Alamkara) in analogy with a human being (cf. his remarks in fn. 2. p. 219 above). He is the only post-dhvani writer who has given a systematic treatment to the Rītis in relation to Rasa and Guna and in so doing he is evidently indebted to Mammata and Candīdāsa. His definition of Rīti shows that it is a suitable arrangement of words (more strictly of letters) which directly adorns the body of poetry and ultimately helps the realisation of Rasas and the like28 just as a proper adjustment of the different limbs of a man directly beautifies his body as a whole and indirectly his soul. Four different Ritis have been mentioned and defined. They are (1) Vaidarbhī (2) Gaudī (3) Pāñcālī and (4) Lātikā, the last being added to the orthodox enumeration. They clearly comprise in their wide sphere Mammata's conception of (1) the Vrttis and (2) ghatanā or gumpha (special structures that suggest particular Gunas). In Mammata's Vrtti which constituted only a particular aspect of the verbal figure alliteration (Anuprāsa), it was not possible for him to deal with anything beyond an arrangement of letters. But since Viśvanātha admitted Rīti as a separate poetic element, he could conceive of it from a much broader point of view, including therein everything that can be meant by the expression 'structure of words', viz., the arrangement of letters, the use of compounds and the total

⁽K. P. sūtra 1. p. 13) icchanti teṣām kāvyatvam nirviṣayam atyanta-pravirala-viṣayam vā syād, uktād eva nyāyāt. yas tu rasādi-hīne'pi kvacana kāvya-vyapadesah sa bandhādī-sāmyād gauņa eva. (loc. cit. Compare this with Viśvanātha's vṛtti on pp. 11 and 18.)

^{28.} padasainghaṭanā rītir anga-sainsthā-višeṣavat upakartrī rasādīnām.....ch. IX. Kar 624. p. 526.

effect which these impart to the structure as a whole. Thus, his Vaidarbhī contains (1) either absence of compounds or presence of only short compounds, (2) letters suggestive of the quality of Mādhurya which serve make the nature of the composition sweet and tender²⁹. And since this Rīti is related directly with the Mādhurya Guṇa³⁰, it ultimately helps the manifestation of Śrigāra (both Sambhoga and Vipralambha varieties), Karuna and Śānta Rasas in which that Guna resides in different degrees (VIII, Kar. 607. p. 512). Similarly, his Gaudi is marked by (1) long compounds and (2) letters suggesting the quality of Ojas which lend to the structure of composition gaudiness or grandiloquence³1. This Rīti is specially favourable for Vîra, Bībhatsa and Raudra Rasas in which Ojas resides in increasing degrees (VIII, Kar. 609. cd, p. 513). His Pancali is composed of (1) letters other than those used in Vaidarbhī and Gaudī Rītis and (2) compounds of some five or six words^{3 2}. Viśvanātha has not

S.D. IX, Kar. 626, p. 526.

30. It ought to be noted in this connection that Caṇḍīdāsa defined the Rītis Vaidarbhī, Gauḍī and Pāñcālī in terms of the Guṇas Prasāda, Ojas and Mādhurya respectively. Viśvanātha's characterisation of the Rītis approaches that of the younger Vāgbhaṭa (P. 236 above).

31. Ojaḥ-prakāśakair varņair bandha āḍambaraḥ punaḥ | samāsa-bahulā gaudī......

op. cit. IX, Kar 627. p. 527.

^{29.} mādhurya-vyanjakair varņair racanā lalitātmikā | avṛttir alpa-vṛttir vā vaidarbhī rītir iṣvate ||

^{32.}varņaih šeṣaih punar dvayoh | samasta-pañca-ṣa-pado bandhah Pāñcālikā matā ||

op. cit. IX, Kar 628, pp. 527-28.

explicitly determined the nature of the composition in this Rīti, but the verse :—

madhurayā madhu-bodhita-mādhavīmadhu-samṛddhi-samedhita-medhayā |
madhukarāṅganayā muhur-unmadadhvanibhṛtā nibhṛtākṣaram ujjage ||
(Śiśupālavadha VI, 20)

which he cites (p. 528) as its illustration, shows that it has generally a tender effect on the mind of the reader and as such it partly partakes of the nature of the Vaidarbhi Riti. It should be observed in this connection that Viśvanātha's quotations from the earlier writers like Rudrata and Bhoja in connection with his Vaidarbhī and Pāñcālī Rītis respectively appear to be quite out of place. Instead of supporting his own position these quotations display a bit of his uncritical nature for they present a poetic ideal altogether different from the tradition which he is following^{3,3}. If it is argued, that he has presented the earlier writers' view-points in contrast to his own (as his use of the particle tu in bhojas tu, rudratas tu would imply), why should he specifically select these two writers (along with Purusottama whom he cites in connection with Gaudi) specially when they were not known to have been any remarkable order? Viśvanātha's theorists of

op. cit. p. 527.

^{33.} He quotes the following verse under the name of Rudrața (rudrațas tvāha) but curiously enough, it is not traceable in the Kāvyālamkāra of that author:

asamastaika-samastā yuktā dasabhir gunaisca vaidarbhī | varga-dvitīya-bahulā svalpaprānākṣarā ca subidheyā ||

Bhoja's definition of Pāncāli, as we have already seen (ch. VII B. P. 156 above), involves *inter alia* the Gunas Sukumāra which Viśvanātha himself has explained away after the manner of Mammata.

Lāṭī Rīti, defined as that which possesses the characteristics of both Vaidarbhī and Pāñcālī³*, appears to have been practically an unnecessary addition, for, if this is accepted as a separate Rīti, one may equally expect two other new types, standing midway between the Rītis (1) Vaidarbhī and Gauḍī and (2) Gauḍī and Pāñcālī.

It is worthy of note that just like Mammata, Viśvanātha sanctions a change in the fixed nature of composition (shown above) in accordance with its suitability to the nature of (1) the speaker, (2) the person spoken to and (3) the theme of discourse (kvacit tu vaktrādyaucityād anyathā racanādayah.....IX, Kar 630. p. 530). For instance, it has been seen above that Ojas resides in Raudra Rasa and long compounds as well as bombastic style are favourable for Oias. But still these should be abandoned in a drama (where even this Rasa is depicted) lest they hinder, in any way, the production of the dramatic effect (nāṭakādau raudre'pyabhinaya-pra $d\bar{\imath} rgha$ -sam $\bar{a}s\bar{a}dayah...vrtti$ p. 530). tikūlatrena na Similarly, soft letters should not be used (even) in Śrigāra Rasa when that is being depicted in an ākhyāyikā (evam ākhyāyikāyām śringāre'pi na masrņavarnādayah (ibid). For, this kind of work possesses some amount of historical interest and consequently the grand effect of the subject-matter must be preserved It is needless to mention that in by all means. prescribing the above rules for a change in the stereotyped nature of the structure of composition Viśvanātha is indebted directly to Mammata and indirectly to Anandavardhana.

If we analyse our study of Mammata's treatment of the Gunas, it will be seen that we have discussed the

^{34.} lātī tu rītir vaida bhī-pāñcālyor antarā sthitā 1

question under four broad heads, viz, his (1) sāmānyalakṣaṇa, (2) his viśeṣa-lakṣaṇa, (3) his criticism (3a) of the treatment of earlier writers regarding the general position of Guna and Alamkara as well as (3b) of the daśa-guna theory of Vāmana, and lastly (4) his ascertainment of special structures of composition in relation to particular Gunas. Viśvanātha, however, does not touch upon the question of earlier writers' views on the respective position of Guna and Alamkāra. Otherwise he has been an out-and-out follower of Mammata in respect of the main principles involved in the last two points mentioned above. Thus, he has proceeded on the same line of arguments and has generally expressed the same ideas in his own way. He has explained away Vāmana's artha-gunas and has resolved his śabda-gunas into the three new Gunas exactly after the manner of Mammata. He has sometimes converted the vitti portions of the K. P. into kārikā forms in his own work: 35 but hardly has he given us any novelty of treatment regarding the two points just spoken of.

And so far as the first of the above four points (i.e. general definition or sāmānya lakṣaṇa of Guṇa)

slesah samādhir audāryam prasāda iti ye punah |
gunās cirantanair uktā ojasy antarbhavanti te ||
mādhurya-vyanjakatvam yad asamāsasya varņitam |
pṛthat-padatvam mādhuryam tenaivāngīkṛtam punah ||
artha-vyakteh prasādākhya-guņenaiva parigrahah |
(S.D. VIII, Kars 614-16, pp. 515-18).

with Mammata's vrtti:

^{35.} To witness one or two specific instances, we may just compare Viśvanātha's Kārikās:

is concerned, Viśvanātha does not appear to have been so explicit as Mammata and to have analysed its nature and scope as the later writer Govinda (pp. 281-82) has done. He characterises Guṇa as merely a virtue of Rasa, the aiigi artha, just as heroism etc. are of the human soul.^{3 6} But he does not think it to be necessary to explain the nature of the association between Guṇa and Rasa.

This is probably more than made up in his definition of the individual Gunas (višesa-laksana) where he has thought fit to differ from his master Mammata. While the latter understands the Guna to be a cause of the mental condition involved in the realisation of the Rasa in which the Guna in question resides (fn. 13-14. p. 228 above,) the former suports Abhinava (p. 206 above) and boldly lays down that the Guna is identical with the mental condition cause thereof. 37 and not the He explains away Mammata's sūtra mādhuryain druti-kāranam remarking that the melting of the heart cannot be regarded as an effect of Mādhurya because it has got no separate existence except in the aesthetic bliss s in the

It ought to be noted that here too Viśvanātha has been considerably influenced by the teachings of Candīdāsa who, while commenting upon Mammata's definition of Mādhurya, remarked:—drutikāranam iti lyut-pratyayah bandhādisahakāritva-

^{36.} rasasyāngitvam āptasya dharmāḥ šauryādayo yathā guṇā mādhuryam ojo'tha prasāda iti te tridhā || (S.D. Kar. 604-5 pp. 510-11)

^{37.} citta-dravībhāva-mayo hlādo mūdhuryam ucyate

(op. cit. Kar. 606 p. 511)
ojaš cittasya vistāra-rūpam dīptatvam ucyate

(Kar. 609 p. 513).

^{38.} yat tu kenacid uktam 'mādhuryam druti-kāraņam' iti tanna.
dravībhāvasyāsvādasvarūpāhlādābhinnatvena tat-kāryatvābhāvāt(\'ṛtti on Kar. 606 p. 511).

form of a mental relish. The realisation of Rasa is possible only through and in the form of (a mental condition like) the melting of the heart, so that it is absolutely idle to try to feel the existence of the cittavrtti (dravībhāva), the Guṇa and the Rasa separately. We have already explained this point of view in detail (pp. 206-8 above) and need not dilate upon it here anew. Viśvanātha's subtle power of poetic realisation prompted him readily to appreciate the view-point of Abhinava and following the wake of Caṇḍidāsa to do away with any artificial distinction between the cittavrtti and the Guṇa.

C

JAGANNĀTHA.

Jagannātha has never been explicit upon the point as to what position exactly he assigns to the Guṇas in his theory of Poetry but he has left his views to be inferred by the student of the Śāstra from a study of his treatment which is, as we shall see later on, mostly an attempt at harmonising the teachings of the old school with those of the new. Jagannātha's treatment of the Guṇas proper as well as of the structures favourable for and detrimental to them extends over a considerable length (Rasagaṇgādhara, pp. 53-74) and throughout this one would apparently mark in him a tendency towards avoiding the question as to the views of what school of opinion he is really subscribing to. Thus, his remarks at the very beginning

prakuṭanaparaḥ. lakṣaṇantu citta-dravībhāva-mayı āhlūdo mādhuryam ityeva. na tu kāraṇam hetur iti vyākhyānam jyāyaḥ. dravībhāvasyāsvāda-svarūpāhlādābhinnatvenātatkāryatvāt.................. (Odīpikā, India Office Manuscript, fol. 112 a-b).

of his treatment of the Gunas (rasesu caitesu nigaditesu mādhuryaujah-prasādākhyāms trīn gunān āhuh, p. 53) would probably lead one to understand that he is adhering to the teachings of the early Dhyani theorists. shortly after, when he proceeds to deal with the question of the substrata of the Gunas, one certainly considers him to be leaning towards the views of the Riti school.

We have seen that the theory of Guna as conceived by the authors of the Dhyanyāloka was developed further on the same line by Mammata. His views were accepted with slight or no modification by almost all the later writers till the advent of Jagannatha who was the first (and indeed the last) to raise his finger against this unqualified acceptance. While Jagannath does not totally reject the position of the Dhyanikara that the Gunas belong to Rasa, his main objection against the theory of his predecessors of the Dhyani school is that the Gunas do not belong exclusively to the Rasas but they belong to the word and its sense as well—not secondarily but primarily a view which bears adequate testimony to the influence which the teachings of the school of Vāmana worked upon Jagannātha. Next he proceeds to discuss the twenty Gunas of Vāmana within the remarks jarattarās tu (p. 55).....ituāhuh (p. 62) with his own views here and there, and immediately after that he criticises these Gunas exactly after Mammata beginning with apare tu.....na tāvatah svīkurvanti (p. 62=others do not admit so many Gunas) and ending this criticism with "atas traya eva gunā iti mammatabhattādayah (p. 64). Last of all he takes up the question of the word-structures (pp. 64-73) in which he displays unmistakable traces of the influence of the Dhyani theorists. We shall discuss these as far as necessary in their proper places.

It is interesting to note that Jagannātha has not given us any general definition of Guna nor has he accepted the one given by the early Dhvani theorists but he has presented the character involved in the latter's individual Gunas in such a way that it appears to constitute somewhat like a general definition in his treatment. The early Dhyani theorists' definition of Guna, as we have already seen, implies that (1) Gunas are (primarily) the properties of Rasa, (2) they reside invariably in Rasa and as such (3) they help the manifestation of Rasa; and the question of the production of some mental conditions through or by the Gunas comes in their treatment afterwards, as viśesa laksana, in connection with the individual Gunas. But Jagannātha has observed the fundamental character (viz., the production of one or other mental condition) underlying these individual Gunas and appears to have utilised it in connection with the Doctrine of Guna in general so as to assign a definite independent character to that element.2 In other words, he judges Guna

^{1.} Jagannātha's remarks in this connection are interesting though not explicit:—evam tarhi drutyādi-cittavrtti-proyojakatvam, prayojakatāsambandhena drutyādikam eva vā mādhuryādikam astw", (p. 55.) It will be seen that he has not expressly stated "drutyādi-cittavrttiprayojakatvam guṇah" and as such his remarks noted above cannot, strictly speaking, be looked upon as a definition of the element. But his very attempt at characterising all the Guṇas together, instead of defining them separately like the earlier Dhvani theorists, gives the student sufficient indications to understand that it was his intention to incorporate in the above remarks the fundamental character of the element itself.

^{2.} This is, in a sense, an advance made upon the treatment of his predecessors whose Doctrine of Guṇa, having no separate existence excepting in Rasa, does not naturally bring a definite idea as to its own character, for, when it is remarked that a quality belongs to some known factor (e.g. Rasa here) or is a dharma of it, nothing is thereby said so as to give one a clear and definite idea of the quality itself. We should remember, in this connection, that towards this advancement Jagannātha had not to explore any

fundamentally in terms of the mental condition it produces and when this is admitted, the fact, as to which factor the Guṇa belongs to, does not present much difficulty. Jagannātha appears to solve it from a more or less common-sense point of view even if this is really a matter of individual experience and opinion. If Guṇa is understood to be an element having the capacity for producing some mental condition, Jagannātha cannot maintain that that capacity is restricted to Rasa alone; but, on the other hand, he appears to hold that even the external aspects of poetry, namely, the word and its sense and the composition as a whole may equally possess that capacity and as such, he refuses to accept the position of

appreciably new field of thought nor had he any new materials to utilise, but he had only to present the sel-fsame treatment of his predecessors in a different way applying his remarks (noted in fn. 1) as much to the individual Guṇas as to the element itself and these remarks at once satisfy the sāmānya—as well as the višeṣa-lakṣaṇa of Guṇa as an element of poetry.

3. Prayojakatvam cadrstadi-vilaksanam śabdartha-rasaracanā-gatam eva grāhyam (p. 55). Note adrstādi-vilaksanam where under ādi Nāgeśa includes kāla and possibly deśa and such other factors. This appears to imply that even in ordinary lifeapart from the sphere of poetry-particular circumstances give rise to mental conditions like druti etc. For instance, some people are extremely sentimental by nature and they are very easily moved: similarly when a man reaches a particular place, he may burst into tears if the place is associated with some sad remembrances. But we are not concerned with the above circumstances. Note also the spirit of harmony with which Jagannatha read the views not only of the different schools of thought (e.g. the Riti school and the Dhyani school) but also of the different writers of the Dhyani school itself. This spirit is clearly traceable in two cases, firstly with regard to the question of the factor to which Guna belongs, and secondly with regard to the relationship between the Gunas and the mental conditions with which they are associated. We have seen (p. 228, fn. 13) that Mammata takes the Guna to be the

the early Dhvani theorists that one has to take recourse to *upacāra* (secondary or extended use) when one says that Guṇa belongs to *śabda* and its *artha* or is a *dharma*

cause of the cittavrtti, while Viśvanātha, who is anticipated by Abhinava, identifies the Guna with the cittavrtti (p. 243 above). Jagannātha (p. 54) generally accepts the position of Mammata when he conceives of the relationship of prayojya and prayojaka between the cittavritis and the Gunas but his difference with the treatment of Mammata appears to lie in the fact that while the latter's Guna produces the cittavrtii only on account of Rasa in which it always resides, the former's Guna can produce the cittavriti even on its own account i.e. quite independently of Rasa in which it does not invariably reside. The spirit of harmony is also patent from Jagannatha's remarks later on (quoted in fn. 1) where he first takes the Guna to possess the capacity for producing the cittavrtti and then identifies the one with the other. Now, when Guna is cittavrtii-prayojaka it may reside in sabda, artha and racana, and this is explained by the fact that the reader's mind undergoes the process of melting, expansion etc. on the perusal of the composition as a whole or of the word and its sense, Thus, śabda, artha and racana, which are some external factors responsible for the production of particular mental conditions of the reader, are said to be cittavrtti-prayojaka or oprayojakatva may by said to reside in them. But when the Guna is identified with the ciltavrtti, it must reside only in Rasa because a cittavrtti cannot reside in śabda, artha or racanā (and Jagannātha fights shy even to take recourse to upacara). contrarily, when Guna resides in Rasa, it is not possible to conceive of the relationship of prayojya and prayojaka between the cittravrtti and the Guna because both merge their individuality in that state of aesthetic bliss and consequently one has to be identified with the other. The production of druti and the apprehension of the aesthetic bliss take place simultaneously. So it is that the Guna is generally cittavrtti-provojaka but in the case of Rasa it is cittavrtlir eva, for here the relationship of cause and effect disappears and this will also be justified by the fact that Rasa has been classified as asam/aksya-krama vvangva.

of them.⁴ It will appear, therefore, that Jagannātha lays no mean emphasis upon the structural beauty of composition: and this will also be justified by his very elaborate treatment, with copious illustrations, of structures specially favourable for particular Guṇas (tattadguṇa-vyañjanakṣamā nirmitih p. 66) as well as the defects which are detrimental to structural beauty. These extend over a great length (pp. 64-74) in Jagannātha's treatment, but it is not necessary for us to study them in detail in this connection.

From what has been said above, it will not be difficult to ascertain Jagannātha's attitude towards the question of the relationship between Rasa and Guna. Naturally, he cannot regard Guna to be the inherent property of Rasa alone (rasamātra-dharma). But his arguments in support of this position are interesting not only because they are mixed up with his knowledge of philosophical technicalities but also because they appear to afford a fine example of what Dr. De calls his "subtle reasoning" and his "tendency towards controversy... combined with an aptitude for hairsplitting refinements" (Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II, p. 318). He holds that the theory of the early writers of the Dhvani school that

^{4.} tathāca šabdārthayor api mādhuryāder īdršasya sattvād upacāro naiva kalpya iti tu mādršāķ. p. 55, ll. 9-10.

It is interesting to note, in this connection, that South Indian writers like Vidyārātha and Vāgbhaṭa and those under their influence subscribed whole-heartedly to the Rasa-dhvani creed. Yet they did not try to fit their idea of Guṇa with that of the Dhvani school. Since Jagannātha has tried to reconcile the views of the South Indian theorists who flourished before his time with those of the Dhvani School in his usual ingenious manner (whence resulted his treatment of the Guṇas in their dual nature) his views appear to suffer from want of clearness in some places.

Guna is rasa-dharma can be proved neither by perception nor by inference (pp. 54-55). In the first place, he remarks that unlike usnasparśa, the anala-dharma, which can be felt independently of dāha, the anala-kārya, Guna, the so-called rasa-dharma cannot be perceived independently of druti etc. the rasa-kārva. Speaking plainly it stands thus: it is quite possible for us to feel the heat of the fire (anala-dharma) even when it does not actually burn us. But Guna is not capable of being perceived independently because its existence is, according to the Dhyani theorists, inseparably mixed up with the particular mental condition which the reader undergoes in the process of the realisation of Rasa. On the other hand, if it is assumed that Rasa along with Guna produces druti etc. as its effect, and argued on that strength that Guna is to be inferred as the determinant of the causality in Rasa (kāranatāvacchedakatayā), 5 Jagannātha would reply by saying that when Rasa can, by itself, produce the particular mental condition, it is superfluous to admit the existence of another element viz.. Guna, in it. 6 Next. Jagannātha argues that Guna cannot be regarded as the property (quna or dharma) of Rasa. (the ātman of poetry) because the ātman is, according to the Vedāntin's conception, without any attribute.7 Nor can Guna be

^{5.} This refers to the theory in Vaisesika philosophy that a thing cannot be regarded as a cause unless it is associated with a number of conditions which must exist in the cause in order that it might produce the effect. In the present case it resolves into the position that the Rasa can produce druti because of the Guna which exists in it as its Kāranatā.

^{6.} tādṛśa-guṇa-viśiṣṭa-rasānām drutyādikāraṇatvāt kāraṇa-tāvacchedakatayā guṇānām anumānam iti cet, (na), prātisvikarū-peṇaiva rasānām kāraṇatopapattau guṇakalpane gauravāt. (p. 54).

^{7.} paramātmā guņašūnya eveti māyāvādino manyante. Jhalakīkar, Nyāyakośa (1928) p. 473.

attributed to the permanent moods like rati etc. because these, being some limiting conditions (upādhi) of the Rasas, are to be looked upon as their differentia and as such further attributes cannot be associated with them.8 It will appear, therefore, that Jagannatha's intention was to treat the Gunas as absolute entities. But his own characterisation of Rasa along with śabda, artha etc. as one of the substrata of the Gunas (=the capacity for producing the mental conditions) leaves at least some scope for considering his Guna to be a property of Rasa. The Dhyanikāra's use of the expressions like "śringāro madhurah" (D. K. ii, 8) is, according to Jagannātha, analogous with the ordinary use of an expression like vājigandhā uṣṇā, where uṣṇatva is not the exclusive but accidental quality vājigandhā, since it may reside as much in $v\bar{a}jigandh\bar{a}$ as in other articles like onion, musk and wine.

It ought to be noted that although Guṇa (like any other poetic element) does not find any express mention in Jagannātha's definition of poetry (ramaṇī-yārtha-pratipādakaḥ śabdaḥ p. 4), 10 his broad conception

^{8.} kim cātmano nirgunatayātma-rūparasa-gunatvam mādhuryādīnām anupapannam. evam tadupādhiratyādi-gunatvam api. mānābhāvāt, pararītyā gune gunāntarasyānaucityācca. (p. 55).

^{9.} The Vājigandhā (Withania somnifera) is an Indian plant famous specially for its stimulating character.

^{10.} lakṣaṇe guṇālamkārādi-niveso'pi na yuktah 'uditam maṇḍalam widhoh' iti kāvye... 'gato' stam arkah' ityādau cāvyāptyāpatteh (p. 6). These two specific instances are, he holds, charming by reason of their suggested sense, although they contain neither Guṇa nor Alamkāra. Thus, he appears to support his position on the ground that the practice of mentioning a particular poetic element in the definition of poetry is defective since it excludes the scope of other poetic elements. Two courses are

of this element is quite in harmony with the definition and to some extent helps us to understand the propriety of his classification of poetry. Dr. De has already noted the wide scope of Jagannātha's definition of poetry, namely, that the ramanīyatā involved there-in includes in its comprehensiveness all the orthodox poetic elements. In the case of his Guṇas, the mental conditions evoked account for the poetic charm (ramanīyatā) and their presence raises even śabda, artha and racanā (not to speak of Rasa) to the standard of the reader's appreciation. This adequately justifies the fact that Jagannātha, like Kuntaka, does not look upon the presence of Rasa as the only test of a poem's appeal to the reader. In his opinion, ramanīyatā which is

then open. Either all the elements that can afford poetic charm should be explicitly embodied in the definition of poetry or it must be defined in terms of some such factor as may be regarded as the essence of all of them. It, may, therefore, be generally held that Jagannātha thinks his definition to be an improvement upon that of his predecessors of the Dhvani school (not excluding Mammața) in the sense that these latter could not effectively utilise a factor like Jagannātha's ramanīyatā (or their cāruiva, camaikāra, vicchiti etc.) which stands like a symbol for all the orthodox poetic elements. Nāgeśa appears to be correct when he remarks 'evain ca viśeṣa-lakṣane teṣām [guṇālamkārādīnām] niveśe'pi sāmānyalakṣane teṣām na niveśa ili na ko'pi doṣaḥ (p. 7,).

- 11. Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. ii, p. 319, where the term rammāayatā and its scope (specially with reference to Rasa) have been explained. The different heads of classification have also been explained in pp. 320-21 of the same book.
- 12. yattu 'rasavad eva kāvyam' iti sāhityadar paņe nirnītam, tan na, vastvalamkāra-pradhānānām kāvyānām akāvyatvāpatteh. na cestāpattih. mahākavi-sampradāyasyākulībhāvaprasangāt...... (p. 7. ll. 9-11). Jagannāth's main objection against Viśvanātha's definition of poetry is that the latter, in his attempt at perfection

taken to be the sine qua non of true poetry, is due to the presence not only of Rasa but also of one or more of other factors, namely, vastu-and alamkāra-dhvani, vācyālamkāra etc. The contribution of his Gunas, too, is not insignificant in this connection. His classification of poetry into four different classes, namely, (1) uttamottama (2) uttama, (3) madhyama and (4) adhama (p. 9) also bears testimony to the above fact. These heads of classification will show that the presence or otherwise of Rasa serves only to effect a gradation in the degree of charmingness; nevertheless, he admits of the existence of some sort of poetic charm in all of them. His later discussion about word-structures specially favourable for particular Gunas, 13 with copious illustrations in all possible detail, tends to show that the scope of his Gunas is scarcely limited and that he views poetic charm belonging to a wide range of linguistic composition.14

by directly referring to Rasa in his definition, considerably narrows down the scope there-of. (See Sanskrit Poetics Vol. ii. pp. 283-84 for Jagannāth's objections against Viśvanātha in detail).

^{13.} madhura-rasesu ye visesato varjanīyā anupadam vaksyante ta eva ojasvisvanukūlāh, je cānukūlatayoktās te pratikūlā iti'sāmānyato nirnayah (p. 69). Thus, the word-structure, which is detrimental to one Guna (Mādhurya), is favourable for another (Oias) and vice versa. Hence the presence of one or the other Guna can be felt in any of the two types of composition. And as for Prasada, it has hardly any restriction, quick apprehension of the sense being its essential character. Jagannatha himself has remarked (p. 54) prasādas tu sarveşu raseşu sarvāsu racanāsu ca sādhāranah. In a word, the very fact that Jagannāth has admitted the presence of Guna in and also outside Rasa has theoretically enlarged the scope of this element and consequently of poetic charm itself.

^{14.} We must emphasise here that this again is a matter of individual appreciation. In any case, it should be admitted that

We shall now briefly discuss Jagannātha's reading of the Guṇas of Vāmana under two sections, according as they belong to śabda or artha, and note the discrepancies, between the two theorists in their respective treatment of these Guṇas. We have already studied (Ch. VI) Vāmana's Guṇas, but for the sake of convenience we shall here arrange the readings of both in a tabular form:—

I. ŚABDA-GUŅAS

Vāmana
(1) Ślesa:—masṛṇatvam

Jagannātha
śabdānām bhinnānāmapy
ekatva-pratibhāna-prayojakaḥ samhitayā ekajātīyavarṇavinyāsaviśeṣo gāḍhatvāpara-paryāyaḥ (p. 56)

Jagannātha's śabdānām bhinnānāmapy ekatva-pratibhānaprayojaka is equivalent to Vāmana's vṛtti:—yasmin sati bahūny api padāny ekavad bhāsante. The formation of many words into a single whole is the character of the Guṇa in both. But while according to Vāmana, this is due to masṛṇatva or ease of pronunciation, Jagannātha thinks this to be due to the presence of many words

poems, which are sarasa do not produce the same amount of poetic charm as those which have in them, according to Jagannātha, Guṇas independently of Rasa. Jagannātha would naturally say that the degree of the mental condition produced makes all this difference. Even in the case of Rasa, Jagannātha has referred (p. 53) to a controversy among two classes of theorists over the question whether a greater degree of druti is produced in the order Sambhoga, Karuṇa, Vipralambha and Śānta or in the order Sambhoga, Karuṇa Śānta and Vipralambha. Such a controversy is absolutely unprofitable and Jagannātha himself has appealed to the experience of the connoisseur for a decision over the matter (.....yadi sahrdayānām anubhabo'sti sākṣī tadā sa pramāṇam. (p. 54. ll. 3-4).

compounded together, in which alliteration (ekajātīye varņa-vinyāsa) plays a prominent part. The gāḍhatva i also the character of Vāmana's Ojas. Jagannātha i inclined to appoximate his Śleṣa to Daṇḍin's, as wi appear from his citation of Daṇḍin's definition of Śliṣṭ (=aspaṣṭa-śaithilya), but we ought not to ignore on important fact that Daṇḍin's Śleṣa involves no compoun words which one sees in Jagannātha's.

Vāmana

Jagannātha

(2) Prasāda :—śaithilyam (guṇaḥ samplavāt)

gādhatva - śaithilyābhyār vyutkrameṇa miśraṇar bandhasya (ibid)

Vyutkrama literally means "inversion." Jagannātha use it in the sense of admixture or "alternate appearance" a his vṛtti on the illustrative verse shows. 15 Both thes theorists mean the same thing by this Guṇa bu Jagannātha states his point more clearly.

- (3) Samatā :— $m\bar{a}rg\bar{a}bhedah$ upakramād $\bar{a}sam\bar{a}pte$ $r\bar{\imath}tyabhedah^{16}$ (ibid)
- (4) Mādhurya:—pṛthakpada- saṅnyoga-para-hrasvātirikte tvam varṇa-ghaṭitatve sati pṛtha.
 padatvam (ibid)

kim brūmas tava vīratām vayam amī yasmin dharākhanda, krīdā-kundalita-bhru-sona-nayane dormandalam dasyati | etc atra yasminnityantam saithilyam, bhrūsabdāntam gādhatva; punar nayanetyantam prathamam ityādi bodhyam (p. 56).

16. It ought to be noted that Jagannātha has not treated of the Rītis separately. But his reference to Upanāgarikā in twṛtti (upanāgarikayā eva upakrama-samhārau) as well as Nāgeśa commentary on the definition of this Guṇa (rītayaścopanāgari paruṣā komalā ca. etā eva krameṇa vaidarbhī-gaudī-pāncāl ucyante...p. 56) leaves no room for doubt that Jagannāth hol the same view as Mammaṭa, who follows Udbhaṭa in his conce tion of the Vṛttis.

^{15.} The verse runs thus :-

Jagannātha urges the necessity for the absence of conjunct consonants. Nāgeśa remarks on pṛthak-padatva:—padāni bhinnāny apekṣitāni, na tu śleṣavat. He apparently insists upon the absence of compound words which has also been explicitly demanded in Vāmana's rṛtti¹⁷

Vāmana

- (5) Sukumāratā :—ajaraṭhatvam (=apāruṣyam)
- (6) Arthavyakti:—
 arthavyakti-hetutvam

$Jagann\bar{a}tha$

aparuṣa-varṇa-ghaṭitatvam (p. 57)

jhagiti pratīyamānārthānvayakatvam (quick apprehension of the connection of ideas.....(ibid)

Nāgeša understands this quick apprehension to be due to the fact that the composition is complete in itself. One has not to depend upon any extrinsic matter in order to understand the sense (ākānkṣādi-sakala-kāraṇa-sāmagrī-sattvād iti bhāvaḥ). Vāmana, however, does not make it clear what this explicitness of the sense is due to.

(7) Udāratā :— vikaṭatvam(yasmin sati nṛtyantīva padāni)

kathina-varna-ghatanārūpa-vikatatva-lakṣaṇā (Liveliness in the form of an arrangement of harsh syllables¹⁸....ibid).

^{17.} samāsa-dairghya-nivṛttiparancaitat (under iii, 1, 20).

^{18.} Jagannātha does not accept that the vikaṭatva involved here is due to a swing of words (padānām nṛṭyatprāyatvam) as enjoined by Vāmana. He appears to hold that Mammaṭa could not have included the earlier theorists' Udāratā under his Ojas, had he understood this vikaṭatva to be due to a peculiar swing of words; for, the verse sva-caraṇa-viniviṣṭair nāpurair narṭtakṭuām etc. [which Vāmana selected as an illustration of his (śabda) Udāratā but which has been wrong!y ascribed by Jagannātha to the commentators of the Kāvyaprakāśa] is, in Jagannātha's opinion, hardly favourable for the structure of Mammaṭa's Ojas.

Vāmana (8) Ojas : -gāḍhabandhatvam Jagannātha samyogapara-hrasvaprācurya-rupam gāḍhatvam (p. 58)

On the other hand, it contains, in his opinion, Madhurya in some of its parts. Now, it is probable that Mammata included Vāmana's vikatatā under his uddhata-gumpha without taking into account Vāmana's illustrative verse. But if he included Vāmana's nytyat-prayatva under his Ojas without being satisfied that the verse in question was favourable for the structure there-of, Mammata himself was to blame and not his commentators. Further, Jagannatha does not think that the verse in question contains a swing of words at all. This is of course a matter of opinion and even the last two feet (specially the last foot) of his own illustration of Udarata viz., hathoddhala-jatodbhato gatapato nato nytyati may, in a sense, be also said to contain a swing of words. His modification of Vamana's treatment with regard to the definitions of three sabda-gunas, viz. Slesa, Samadhi and Prasada, simplifies and to some extent strengthens the weak position of Vamana; but it must be said that he has sadly betrayed himself in his treatment of Vāmana's (śabda) Udāratā, where he mysteriously ascribes Vāmana's views to the commentators of the K. P. This admits of no doubt that he had not before him Vāmana's work but he gathered the latter's views from some second-hand source. The manner of his ascription of the definition of Visesokti (p. 439) to Vāmana does not militate against the view put forward here; for, he might have taken this from Śrīdhara's commentary on the Kāvyaprakāśa where Vāmana's definition of Visesokti has been criticised. (A. S. B. Manuscript of the K. P. Viveka, fol. 194b). In this connection, another fact should also be taken into account. Jagannatha has nowhere mentioned the name of Vamana or of Dandin with reference to the older theorists' (jarattarāh) treatment of Guna and he appears to have confused the treatment of these two theorists when he speaks of the two-fold aspect of each of the Gunas and at the same time enumerates them by quoting the well-known verse slesah prasādah etc. of Dandin (Ch. V, p. 59 above) to whom, however, such an idea of the two-fold aspect of a Guna did not occur so clearly.

The use of the expression samyogapara-hrasva-prācurya (abundance of vowels followed by conjunct consonants) raises a doubt whether Jagannātha takes gāḍhatva here to mean sānurāgatva after Abhinavagupta (ch. III, p. 38). In fact, the gāḍhatva as referred to here and that explained in connection with Śleṣa do not appear to be much different. Even samyogapara-hrasva-prācurya does exist in the illustration of Jagannātha's Śleṣa. It seems that the character of these two Guṇas have not been clearly kept apart by Jagannātha.

Vāmana

Jagannātha

(9) Kānti :—aujjvalyam (bandhasya) avidagdha-vaidikādi-prayogayogyānām padānām parihārena prayujyamānesu padesu lokottara-sobhārūpam aujjvalyam (ibid)

Jagannātha's definition is merely an elucidation of Vāmana's $s\bar{u}tra$ and $vrtii^{10}$.

(10) Samādhi: -ārohāvaroha- bandha-gāḍhatva-śithilakramaḥ tvayoḥ krameṇāvasthānam (ibid)

Jagannātha appears to take $\bar{a}roha$ and avaroha as synonymous respectively with $g\bar{a}dhatva$ and sithilatva, a position not on a par with that of Vāmana who takes $\bar{a}roha$ and avaroha to be particular aspects $(t\bar{v}vr\bar{a}vasth\bar{a})$ of Ojas $(g\bar{a}dhatva)$ and Prasāda (sithilatva) respectively and not identical with them. He distinguishes Samādhi from Prasāda on the ground that while in the latter $g\bar{a}dhatva$ and saithilya appear alternately more than

^{19.} Caṇḍīdāsa explains: aujjvalyarūpā hālikādi-prasiddhapada-vinyāsa-janyagrāmyaiābuddhi-vaiparītyenālaukikā- sobhā-sālirūpetyarthah (fol. 114b, India Office Manuscript).

once (vyutkrama), in the former both appear only once, one being toned down or heightened by the other 20

II. ARTHA-GUNAS

 $V\bar{a}mana$

(1) Ślesa:—ahatanā

Jagannātha

kriyā-paramparāyā vidagdhacestitasya tadasphutatvasya tadupapādaka-unktes' ca sāmānādhikaranyarūpah sainsargah (p. 59)

Jagannātha's definition would mean "identical association of an artful demeanour-its incongruity (lit. indistinctness) as well as a well-reasoned combination by means of a series of actions." Nāgeša rightly reads kriyāparamparayā instead of oparamparāyāh. He refers to the well-known verse drstvaikāsana-sainsthite priyatame etc. (quoted in Vāmana, Abhinava and Bhoja) as an illustration. Vāmana's ghatanā we have already explained (ch. VI, p. 100). Jagannātha has probably given this definition purposely, in order that it might fit in with the sense of the verse in question.

- pada-parigrahah)
- (3) Samatā: —avaisamyam =(prakramābhedah)

(2) Prasāda:—arthavaima— yāvadarthaka-padatvarūpam lyam (prayojakamātra- artha-vaimalyam (p. 59).

> prakramābhangenārthaghatanātmakam avaisamyam-(ibid)21

harih pita harir mata harir bhrata harih suhrt 1 harim sarvatra pasyāmi harer anyan na bhāti me n

is an example more of a sabda-guna than of an artha-guna. In Vāmana's illustrative verse, however, which deals with rtusandhi

^{20.} krama eva hi tayoh prasadad asya bhedakah, tatra hi tayor vyutkramena vytteh (p. 58).

It should be carefully noted that Jagannātha's illustrative. verse

 $V\bar{a}mana$

Jagannātha

tryam

(4) Mādhurya:—ukti-vaici- ekasyā evokter bhangyantarena punah kathanātmakam ukti-vaicitryam (ibid).

Gopendra Tripurahara, in his commentary on Vāmana (vrtti, p. 92) takes this ukti-vaicitrya to mean varnyamānasyārthasya pratikarse pratipādye bhangyantarenoktih Jagannātha, following Mammata, remarks in his vrtti that but for this strikingness of utterance, there would appear a fault22 called anavīkrtatva which the and which we have already discussed in its proper place, (P. 101) the Guna may rightly be said to belong to artha.

22. Jagannatha has not dealt separately with the Concept of Dosa except incidentally in connection with the Gunas; but he has given, after Anandavardhana, a comprehensive treatment of the mutual contradiction of the Rasas (pp. 56-63). He has named two technical faults anavīkrtatva and aślīlatā here in connection with his discussion of Vamana's Gunas and these appear as opposites of the arthagunas Mādhurya and Sukumāratā. Next, all sorts of faults that arise in connection with word-structure have been included by him under a single technical name asravya (evam ims sarve'py asravyabhedāh kāvya-sāmānye varjanīyāh p. 69). Besides this, he has also referred to some other faults which are to be particularly discarded (visesato varjanīvāh) inasmuch as they deal with structures which prove to be particularly detrimental to the realisation of Rasa. It will not be profitable for us to discuss these defects of structure in all their detail. We would do well only to remember that Jagannatha has generally followed his predecessors in the post-dhyani school in his treatment of this section. It cannot be said with any amount of certainty whether the unfinished nature of Jagannātha's work was to any extent responsible for his omission of a separate treatment of the Concept of Dosa. His incidental reference to Dosa in connection with Guna and Rasa and his elaborate treatment of Rasa-virodha (pp. 46-53) prior to it make it probable that, like Anandavardhana, Jagannātha did not think it necessary to treat of the Dosas very elaborately but considered the Rasadoşa (roughly anaucitya) to be the main factor disturbing the poetic effect,

pre-dhvani theorists call $ek\bar{a}rthatva$ (useless repetition of the same expression).

This bhangyantara-kathana would, therefore, not only keep the poem free from the fault mentioned above but also add a definite charm to it

Vāmana

Jagannātha

(5) Sukumāratā:—apāruṣyam akāṇḍe śokadāyitvābhāvarūpam apāruṣyam (p. 60)

Jagannātha (as also Gopendra Tripurahara in his commentary) considers the Aślilatā-doṣa to be a negation of this Guṇa. It may be noted that the *amangala* variety of Aślīlatā-doṣa specifically constitutes the corresponding fault.

(6) Arthavyakti:—vastusva- vastuno varṇanīyasyāsādhābhāva-sphuṭatvam vaṇa-kriyārūpayor varṇanam (ibid)

As before, Jagannātha follows Mammaṭa and states explicitly in his *vṛtti* that this Guṇa comes under the Śyabhāyokti Alamkāra of the new school.

- (7) Udāratā: -agrāmyatvām grāmyārthaparihārah
- (8) Ojas:—arthasya prauḍhiḥ,
 (its five varieties have been already noted, pp. 95-96).

ekasya padārthasya bahubhiḥ padair abhidhānam bahūnām caikena, tathaikasya vākyārthasya bahubhir vākyair bahuvākyārthasyaikavākyena abhidhānam, višeṣaṇānām sābhiprāyatvam ceti pañcavidham ojaḥ. (ibid)

Jagannātha explains sābhiprāyatva as prakṛtārthapoṣakatā which is later on taken (after Mammaṭa) to be a negation of the fault apuṣṭārtha (use of unnecessary epithets).

Vāmana

Jagannātha

(9) Kānti:—dīpta-rasatvam

dīpta-rasatvam (p. 62)

(10) Samādhi:—artha-dṛṣṭiḥ avarṇitapūrvo'yam arthaḥ

avarnitapūrvo'yam arthah pūrva-varnitacchāyo **veti** kaver ālocanam (ibid)

It is needless to mention that Jagannātha's definition is nothing but an elucidation of the two kinds of artha mentioned by Vāmana. Jagannātha afterwards (p. 63) remarks, in the name of Mammaṭa, that the poet's consideration (kaver ālocanam) about the artha, being absolutely necessary in his production, need not be regarded as a separate Guṇa; otherwise the poet's genius too would have to be regarded as such².

Similarly, Jagannātha criticizes all the above Guṇas of Vāmana under the name and after the manner of Mammaṭa, ultimately admitting, like all Dhvani theorists, the existence of only three Guṇas on the basis of the mental conditions. It will be mere repetition to study here this criticism in detail but we may show in a tabular form, that all the above Guṇas can, according to the new theorists, be ultimately resolved into three, including some under one of these and some under Rasa-dhvani or the Alamkāras, and characterising others as mere doṣābhāvas or even positive Doṣas. Uktivaicitrya need not be treated as a separate Guṇa since there may be innumerable varieties of strikingness in different poems according to the power of the poets.

^{23.} samādhistu kavigatah kāvyasya kāraņam, na tu guṇah, pratibhāyā api kāvya-guṇatvāpatteh. We have seen (p. 230) that Mammata does not criticise the Guṇa exactly in this way but it must be said that Jaganuātha's criticism is quite an interesting and pertinent one.

	Positive Dosa						sometimes a					
OR TREATED AS	Mere Negation of the Dosa					adhika-padatva		vaiṣamya-doṣa		anavikṛtatva	kastatva	amangala-rūpāślīla
IO	Vaicitrya mātra, no Guna			vaicitrya mātra								8
ED UNDER	Rasa-dhyani or Alamkāra				ka-				jaka			
INCLUDED UNDER	New Guna		ojo-vyañjaka ghatanā		prasāda-vyañjaka- ghaṭanā			YA	i. śabda mādhurya-vyañjaka ghatanā		•	•
GUŅAS		1. ŚLESA	i. ƙabda	ii. artha 2. PRASĀDA	i. śabda	ii. artha 3. SAMATĀ	i. śabda	ii. artha 4. MĀDHURYA	i. śabda	ii. $artha$ 5. $SUKUM\bar{A}RAT\bar{A}$	i. śabda	ii. artha

contd.	Positive Doșa			•														•
TED AS	Mere Negation of the Dosa						grāmyatva				apusțārtha		grāmyatva					
OR TRE	r Vaicitrya matra, no Guna										vaicitrya-mātra			te		•		kāvya-kāraņa
INDER	Rasa-dhvani or Alamkāra			svabhāvokti			•				•			Rasa-dhyani etc.				
INCLUDED UNDEROR TREATED AS contd.	New Guna		prasāda			ojo-vyañjaka- ghatanā			ojo-vyañjaka-	ghaṭanā						ojo-vyañjaka-	ghațanā	
GUNAS		6. ARTHAVYAKTI	i. śabda	ii. artha	7. UDĀRATĀ	i. śabda	ii. artha	8. OJAS	i, śabda		ii. artha	9. KĀNTI	i. śabda	ii. artha	10. SAMĀDHI	i. śabda		ii. artha

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From all that has been said above it will be easily seen that the most important and original contribution of Jagannatha, so far as the concept of Guna is concerned lies in his discussion about the substrata of this element. Otherwise he has accepted the teachings of the Dhyani theorists only with slight modification here and there. In spite of all his attempts to conceal his own views under the garb of reference to the teachings of the different theorists, one can clearly mark in him a leaning towards the position taken by his predecessors viz. those of the Dhyani school. Thus, he has accepted the definition and character of individual Gunas of the Dhyani theorists but has treated them in a different way to strengthen his own position. He has also adhered to the number and nomenclature of the mental conditions and has characterised the Gunas on the basis thereof. Then again, Guna, in his theory, comes in the course of his treatment of the Rasas and that portion of chapter I which deals with the Gunas and their structures, ends with the remark "iti sainksepena nirūpitā rasāh" (p. 74) This proves that, in spite of his widening the scope of the Gunas, Jagannātha was unconsciously dragged into the position of the early Dhvani theorists in presenting Guna as a subsidiary element. And lastly, his description of the letters (varna), composition (racanā) and structures (nirmiti or gumpha) as the suggestors (vyanjaka) of particular Gunas²⁴ shows another clear instance of Mammata's influence upon him. In the treatment of Mammata, whose Guna resides in sabda and artha only

^{24.}vargasthānām pancānām apyavisesena mādhurya vyanjakatām āhuḥ (p. 64) bhagavad-dhyānautsukyasya.....sānta eve paryavasānāt tadgata-mādhuryasyābhivyanjikā racaneyam (p. 64) tattad-guņavyanjana-kṣamāyā nirmiteḥ paricayāya.....varjanīyan.....nirūpyate (p. 66).

secondarily^{2,6}, the relationship of vyangya and vyanjaka between Guṇa on the one hand and śabda, racanā^{2,6} etc. on the other is quite justified; but in the case of Jagannātha who is an adherent of the theory of Guṇa as a primary virtue of the śabda, such a procedure is absolutely unwarrantable. This, together with the more important position of Jagannātha regarding the question of the substrata of the Guṇas, may be explained by the fact that he was trying to effect a synthesis of the views of the old school and those of the new by borrowing materials from both. This was to a great extent responsible for the curious combination and apparent contradiction.

But the real importance of Jagannatha's work does not lie in his treatment of the Concept of Guna alone. It is true that he has generally been an adherent to the main teachings of the Dhyani theorists but, in spite of that, a careful observer would not fail to see that he displays a spirit of sturdy independence throughout his work. Thus, some of the well-established views of eminent theorists of the Dhyani school he dismisses unceremoniously as incapable of standing criticism; and even those that he accepts had to pass through the crucible of his strong scrutiny. He has a peculiar way of reproducing things in a forceful language, on account of which even longaccepted views appear to be newly set forth by him. This is traceable not only in his treatment of the Gunas but also in that of the Alamkaras which constitute the greater portion of the present work (Rasagangādhara) as well as the whole of his Citramīmāmsākhandana.

^{25.} mādhuryan tu pareṣām [vāmanādīnām prācīnānām] asmad [mammaṭabhaṭṭādy] abhyupagata-mādhuryavyañjakam eva. evam ca sarvatra vyañjake vyangya-sabda-prayogo bhāktah (p. 62).

^{26.} proktāh sabda-guņāsca je | varņāh samāso racanā tesām vyanjakatām itāh || (K.P., sūtra 98, p. 484).

Jagannātha tells us that he received his training at the feet of his father, Perubhatta, who became a master of all the different branches of Hindu Philosophy.27 Jagannātha imbibed from him the spirit of an intensive scholarship, and quite naturally, his knowledge philosophical technicalities has crept in even in his works on Alamkara. His involved language and his line of argument bear proofs of an inevitable influence of his deep study, specially of Nyāya and Vedānta systems of Philosophy. But he appears to deviate from the traditional treatment of the Sastra when he brings in the technicalities of Philosophy to establish his thesis. Thus, he argues, that the ātman being nirguna (without any attribute). Gunas like Mādhurva etc. should not be attached to it and that these Gunas cannot even be properties of the sthāyibhāvas like rati which themselves serve as the differentiating characteristics of particular Rasas. For, in the first place, we must not forget that the propounders of the Rasa theory never understood the realisation of Rasa to be identical with the philosophical contemplation of Brahman but only analogous with it (brahmāsvāda-sahodara); and as such, they must have considered the $\bar{a}tman$ of $K\bar{a}vva$ to be distinct from the object of the Vedantin's realisation. And, in the second place, the Dhyani theorists' treatment has left no scope for such a criticism, since the Guna, which, in their theory, represents the mental condition involved in the realisation of Rasa, has got nothing to do with the permanent mood (like rati) unless and until this latter is raised to a state of relish through certain co-operation of the vibhāvas etc. Jagannātha completely overlooked the Dhvani theorists' analogy

^{27.} Rasagangādhara i, 2-3; Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. I, p. 276 and P. V. Kane. (History of Alankāra Literature in his Introduction to the Sāhityadarpaṇa, p. CXXXIII)

between the Kāvya and the human being. Otherwise he would not have missed their analogy between Rasa possessing the Guṇas as its properties and the human soul possessing human virtues. And so far as Rasa is concerned, what appeared to be inconsistent in the eye of a Naiyāyika would not have been so from the view-point of an Ālamkārika, to whom the enjoyment of the aesthetic bliss is beyond ordinary canons of inconsistency and irregularity (cf. alaukika-siddher bhūṣa-nam etat, na dūṣaṇam). The study of Nyāya Philosophy sometimes tends to make the scholars concerned careless about broad facts and mindful about minute details. Jagannātha probably could not—as he could hardly be expected to—prove any exception.

But whatever objection might be raised against Jagannātha's twisting of language, his subtle distinctions and his peculiar way of using philosophical technicalities in arguing a point, it must be admitted that the ultimate result which he thus arrives at (viz. that Guna is a property of śabda, artha, rasa and racanā alike) is valuable since it makes out a strong case for a comprehensive conception of poetry, as he has done. As regards the allegations made against him, we should bear in mind that the spirit of the age in which he flourished and the environment in which he was educated were to a great extent responsible for them. We know that Jagannatha flourished at an age when linguistic precision and logical exposition were accepted as the ideal of scholarship, and this naturally influenced not only Jagannātha and his work on poetics but all the different branches of Sanskrit learning. This influence was not without some benefit. He argues like a true logician, expresses his ideas with force and dignity and presents his theory with a great amount of boldness and confidence—a character essentially required of all

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true scholars and honest thinkers. His manner of argument, in spite of all its defects, undoubtedly indicates what a profound amount of thought he bestowed on the subject. And when the theories and principles of Poetics as set forth by the Dhvani school, came to be finally established and widely accepted, casting into the background all earlier speculations, any further development of the Śāstra could, if it was at all to be expected, probably be brought about only by a reactionary of the type of Jagannātha.

Concluding remarks.

We are now at the end of our present investigation. We have made a comprehensive study of the Concepts of Rīti and Guna in the different stages of their development i.e. in the works of all writers of repute, Bharata down to Jagannātha. The works of most of the writers who came after Jagannātha are merely short-cuts or manuals for beginners rather than original treatises. Some are occupied with the mechanical elaboration of all topics connected with particular Rasas, specially Śrngāra, and others deal with subjects like kavišiksā or the manuals for the guidance of poets. They do not display any strikingness of treatment in respect of the general principles of poetics nor do they put forward any new theory with regard to the position of the technical poetic elements. They do not, therefore, come within the purview of the present work.

In tracing the development of the Rīti-Guṇa Theory, it has been our aim to utilise all available sources—printed texts as well as manuscripts—and to make deductions from the writings of different theorists only after close, careful and critical observation of the various points in their treatment of those topics. We have entered into the details of all difficult problems and have left no point, worth notice, untouched. In many places we have attempted to arrive at definite interpretation of obscure or corrupt texts, suggesting likely emendations where necessary. An attempt to determine the position of the two concepts in the theory of poetry of different writers has often led us to explain the theory itself and in so doing, we have perhaps gone sometimes beyond what was strictly needed. But the topics were so interesting and

our desire for making ourselves clear so strong that could not resist the temptation of walking into digressio here and there.

But still it is hoped that we have been able to justice to the Concepts of Rīti and Guṇa proper whi are the subjects for our study. We have indicated t general development of the two theories in the body the work mostly as we advanced from one chapter another. Here we would invite the special attentiof our readers to the following points in the prese work:—

- (i) As a result of comparing the two texts of t Nāṭyaśāstra as represented by the Kāvyamālā a Chowkhamba editions regarding Bharata's treatment the Guṇas, we have seen that Abhinavagupta receiv and commented upon a text which has been preserv in K. M. edn. and Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra pa under Bharata's name definitions of particular Guṇ which can be deduced from those of the Ch. text (ch. II This, together with other differences of arrangement the two texts (noted in ch. II), tends to prove that t work existed in two different recensions. The definitio of some of the Guṇas, however, are identical in bo the texts.
- (ii) We have proved with the help of facts a figures that the Gaudī Rīti, as we find it in the treatme of Daṇdin, possesses a distinct value of its own and need not be discarded as being essentially marked by topposites of the standard excellences as has been hint at by certain scholars (ch. V).
- (iii) Proceeding on the lines of the characterisation of the Gunas by Abhinavagupta and his followers, have attempted at a discussion of the place of Guna the realisation of Rasa and have noted that the Dhy: theorists might even have recognised explicitly t

particular aspect of the Guṇa as Bhaṭṭanāyaka has, as a matter of fact, done (ch. VIII A).

(iv) We have also discussed the Agnipurāṇakāra's treatment of Rīti in connection with drama. (VII C)

Besides, we have utilised to our advantage three valuable manuscripts, vix (1) The Abhinavabhāratī (2) the °dīpikā of Caṇḍīdāsa and (3) the °viveka of Śrīdhara and have noted some striking points resulting from their study. Thus, we have shown from internal evidences that:—

- (i) Following the lead of Bhaṭṭa Tauta, Abhinava-gupta treated Bharata's Lakṣaṇa not as a particular poetic element but as an elastic poetic principle covering the whole domain of poetic expression. In this respect he was to a great extent influenced by not only the main teachings but also the expressions and phraseology of Kuntaka whose theory of Vakrokti has ultimately come to be identified with (Abhinava's treatment of) Bharata's Lakṣaṇa (ch. II).
- (ii) While commenting on the Guna Doctrine of Bharata, Abhinava made an ingenious attempt to approximate each of Bharata's Gunas to the corresponding Guna of Vāmana in its double aspect but his interpretations have sometimes proved to be far-fetched. (ch. III).
- (iii) Viśvanātha, who is held in high esteem as a theorist of remarkable merit, was indebted considerably to Caṇḍīdāsa, (author of the dīpikā commentary of the K. P.) for some of the views where he differred from his master Mammaṭa and for which he has so long been regarded as somewhat an original writer (ch. VIIIB).
- (iv) Jagannātha, the last great writer on Poetics, had not, before him, the original work of Vāmana but received the latter's views from second-hand sources, possibly some of the commentaries of the K. P. e.g. viveka of Śrīdhara.

The Concepts of Riti and Guna which we have studied here are only two of the several technical elements in terms of which theorists have judged poetic beauty. These two elements, therefore, analyse only a part of the poetic expression—not the whole of it. The Rīti theorists, who advocated the essential importance of these two elements in their theory of poetry, are rightly regarded as having taken only a formal view of poetic beauty in consideration of the fact that they entirely ignored the deeper aspects of poetry. But still they deserve a considerable amount of admiration for apart from other merits of their treatment already noted (ch. VI) they hit upon one very important fact, namely, the correlation of the two elements, Guna and Rīti. For, when he speak of the 'excellence' of a particular literary composition, what we primarily understand is the excellence of its style and in this sense the Rīti theorists were, in their own way,28 right in treating the Gunas and Alamkāras as properties of Rīti. But while they stopped here, the Dhvani theorists went further and reconsidered the whole issue on the basis of their changed conception of poetic beauty. Any way, the importance of the word-structure [roughly Riti of the older school | was recognised by them although some did and some did not assign any technical name to it. They could not altogether explain away the

^{28.} Of course the term 'Rīti' does not involve 'the expression of poetic individuality' and as such it cannot be regarded as strictly equivalent to the English word 'style' (S.K. De, Sanskrit Poetics, Vol. II. pp. 115-16), but scholars have often used the latter term loosely in connection with the former specially in view of the fact that Sanskrit Poetic theorists have seldom considered this particular aspect, viz. the element of individuality in poetic composition excepting probably Kuntaka who classified his Mārgas on the basis of individual nature and culture of poets.

intimate association between the word-structure and the technical poetic excellence [Rīti and Guṇa]. All of them were, however, unanimous on the point that both the Guṇa and the word-structure must ultimately remain subservient to Rasa, the underlying soul of sentiment. This position is not far removed from the common-sense point of view that the style of a poetic composition should be suitable to its theme.

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SUBJECT-INDEX

The following abbreviations have been used:

Bh=Bharata, Jag=Jagannātha

Bhā=Bhāmaha

D=Dandin, con=connection

V=Vāmana

K.D.=Kāvyādarśa

Bhj-Bhoja, Dhv-Dhvani

def=definition, comp.=comparative, imp=importance

K=Kuntaka

AP.=Agnipurāṇa]

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ERRATA

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28	7	treatmeat	treatment
30	8	twoford	twofold
32	4	śabhārthayoḥ	śabdārthayoḥ
51	2 (fn. 4)	explain on	explain later on
		ch. VII, B	ch. VII A.
66	3 (fn. 19)	vişamya	vaişamya
87	5	assings	assigns
88	3	essence	essence
97	10 (fn. $13a$)	i, 18	i, 19
98	11 (fn.)	Mammaṭa	Ruyyaka (Alamkārā- sarvasva p. 100)
99	28	defective	defective examples
107	31	Vividly	vividly
108	31	Guṇas. Still	Guṇas, still
133	13 (fn.)	underly	underlie
140	1	compounds	compound
	8	conjunct)	conjunct consonants)
144	15	above	above that
	20	distant	distinct
149	24	excellence	excellences
152	6	of Doșa	the Doșa
	19	in vogue	in vogue among
156	10	of	by
157	1 (fn. 17)	Gandī	Gauḍī
158	16	of external of	of the externals of
166	5 (fn. 35)	b h vaya	bhavya
169	3	coundrums	conundrums
170	8	as much	as such
184	6	helping	helping the
186	1 (fn. 17)	guņe	guṇo
192	22	P	p 163

Page	line	\mathbf{for}	please read
196	8	$\operatorname{arthodox}$	orthodox
201	1 (fn.)	p. fn. 5	P. 90. f.n. 7.
207	1	shcools	schools
210	4 (fn. 15)	Nāṭyasśāstra	Nāṭyaśāstra
220	2 (fn)	stick	to stick
226	20	samavāya- vṛttyā	(samavāya-vṛttyā)
227	12 (fn)	Pratāparudra Yośo	Pratāparudra- yaśo
234	21 (fn)	possess	possesses
273	15	he	we

In page 140 line 1 (fn.) insert "see" after "two Mārgas" In page 231 line 21 please delete the word although.

N.B. A few other misprints specially regarding diacritical marks have also unfortunately crept in; but since they are obvious they have not been entered in this list. For all these slips and misprints we offer our apology to the generous reader.

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